

Report of the
Commission on
University Purpose

The Senate The University of Alberta



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Commission on
University Purpose

The Senate The University of Alberta



April 1982

COMMISSION ON UNIVERSITY PURPOSE

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PREFACE

The Senate, as an investigative and advisory body comprised of members of the public in addition to university personnel and students, is specifically directed to “enquire into any matter that might tend to enhance the usefulness of the university”.

This Report is only one result of the time and energy spent by many people investigating the aims and purposes of a university. Members of the Commission on University Purpose are not prepared to say, even, that it is the most important result. The Commission believes that the investigative process itself has contributed to greater understanding of the complexities of the objectives of universities in general and in particular of The University of Alberta. Certainly the members of the Commission have benefited a great deal from the process. Several of the groups that made submissions commented that the task of examining their perceptions about a university was a worthy endeavour.

If a portion of those involved in postsecondary education - members of the community, members of government, students, faculty, university administrators - have been stimulated to focus again on fundamental issues, and if the Report suggests new perspectives, specific concerns on which to concentrate, and other areas to explore in depth, the project will be deemed successful from the point of view of Commission members.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The members of the Commission on University Purpose have received considerable help over the past two and a half years. It will not be possible to mention all those people, on and off campus, who have made suggestions for further reading, sent copies of papers, articles and references, and involved themselves in informal discussions with members of the Commission. A list of those who have presented formal briefs to the Commission appears in the Report as Appendix A. Members of the Commission extend their gratitude to the many people who responded to requests for input in many different ways.

There are some special acknowledgements the Commission would like to make: to the Board of Governors, for funding this special long-term project which has been on a different scale from that of the usual Senate inquiry; to President Horowitz for the constant stream of material that he has forwarded or referred to us; to Chancellor Jean Forest for her unswerving support, and to Mrs. Mary Totman, Executive Officer of the Senate for her assistance throughout the project. The Commission is grateful as well to the community organizations who were co-sponsors of the Speakers' Program: the City of Edmonton Business Development Office, the Downtown Rotary Club, the University Women's Club, and the Association of Academic Staff: The University of Alberta.

We also express appreciation to Ms. M. Riddell, a graduate student in the Department of History, who wrote the Brief History of the University of Alberta; to Dr. W. H. Johns, who allowed members of the Commission to consult his book *A History of the University of Alberta, 1908-1969*, while it was still in manuscript form; to Dr. L. W. Kennedy of the Population Research Laboratory, who included questions relevant to the work of the Commission in the Edmonton Area Study; and to Drs. H. W. Hodysh and A. G. Konrad of the Centre for the Study of Postsecondary Education who, with Ms. Joanne McNeal, a graduate student, provided us with an excellent overview of the literature and background relating to other university purpose statements. All of these people were concerned that their expertise should be used in the way best suited to the aims of the Commission, and they all took care to ensure that they understood as completely as possible what the Commission was trying to accomplish.

Thanks also are extended to Mrs. Anne Feilden, formerly of The Senate Office, for her support in the early stages of the work. Most especially, the Commission would like to thank Mrs. Judith Goldsand for her untiring efforts in consolidating information for the members of the Commission, for her encouragement to individuals to participate in the compilation of the final paper, and for her personal contributions in the organization and writing of this Report.

PART ONE
INTRODUCTION

Part One—INTRODUCTION

“As a social organism, arising in society and turning its fruits back into society, a university must take serious notes of what is demanded of it. But it must also consider what demands are proper to its nature and function; it must know itself well enough to know what it can do and what it cannot do and it must know (like a good novelist) what things it may reasonably and properly attempt. Above all, a university must know what things it alone can do, and, against all attacks and blandishments, it must preserve its ability to do those things well.”

**George Whalley
“A Place of Liberty”**

1.1 Rationale

The determination of priorities within a university can be made only after the primary purpose of the institution is clearly understood and shared by all who carry out its function.

Purpose statements provide an institution with a broad philosophical base which may then act as a framework for the development of action-oriented goals. In these times of rapid change it is critical for a university to evaluate the needs and expectations of its students and the public, to consider its resources and what its faculty collectively could do best, and to define as clearly as possible its overall purpose.

The Senate of The University of Alberta is a body responsible for raising the level of understanding between the university and the community. The Commission on University Purpose was established to seek the opinions, perceptions and expectations of various publics, and to generate discussion about universities in order to clarify what the nature, purpose and function of a university should be in the coming decade.

This Report is a synthesis of material gathered over a period of two years and the Commission acknowledges that, in order to produce a useful document, not all areas of concern or views expressed can be included in these pages. The Commission has therefore sought to identify those themes and questions which occur most frequently.

It is hoped that conclusions which have been drawn will serve The University of Alberta by pointing out issues which require particular attention, and assist the community-at-large to better understand the nature, purposes and functions of a university.

1.2 Terms of Reference

RESOLUTION: Commission on University Purpose

Passed by The Senate of
The University of Alberta
November 16, 1979.

WHEREAS it has become evident to this Senate that serious questionings and concerns on the part of certain members of the University community, faculty, students, and administration alike, of certain members of the government, and of certain members of the public at large, regarding not only the functions but also the identification of the very nature and purpose or purposes of universities in general as well as of The University of Alberta in particular, have been expressed and discussed publicly; and

WHEREAS by virtue of the authority of the Universities Act, R.S.A. 1970, C.378, Sec. 10, as amended:

- “(1) It is the duty of a senate to inquire into any matter that might tend to enhance the usefulness of the university.
- (2) In particular, but without restricting the generality of subsection (1), a senate is empowered to . . .
 - (b) receive and consider submissions from anyone interested in the university, and
 - (c) arrange for public meetings, radio and television programs and other such means of acquiring and providing information with respect to the university and its functions as it considers appropriate . . .”

THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED

That a Commission, the composition of which shall be determined by the Chancellor and Executive Committee, be established forthwith to inquire into the nature, purpose or purposes, and function of a “University”—and to this end generally, but having before it the particular situation of The University of Alberta:

to consult and seek the opinions, perceptions, or expectations, as to this nature, purpose, and function, of all those who may jointly or severally wish to contribute to the inquiry, whether residents of Alberta or not, whether current or former members of the University community, or members of the public at large, or members of government, as well as those who have contributed to the elucidation of this nature, purpose, and function by their written or published works, or any whose contributions would be of value to the inquiry;

to generate by discussion and inquiry the expression of such opinions, expectations or perceptions as may be held;

to seek clarification of such opinions and expectations, as well as clarification defining the fundamental nature and purpose of the "University";

to seek for possible publication written expression of such of the submissions as contribute most effectively to the elucidation of the matters under discussion; and

to report fully to the Senate as to the results of the inquiry.

In the pursuit of its inquiry, and without restricting the generality thereof, the Commission may consult any written or published work, invite and seek submissions, oral or written, hold or sponsor hearings, forums, or lectures, for the purpose of obtaining information or stimulating discussion.

It shall not be within the mandate of the Commission to carry out investigation of the actual and internal working of The University of Alberta, to require reports of the faculty, students, or administration of The University of Alberta as to the conduct of university affairs, or generally to evaluate the specific conduct of the operation of the university.

The Commission will not duplicate the reviews which are being conducted by the academic community of The University of Alberta as a follow-up to the Board's Priorities Committee Report. Indeed, the Commission's activities will complement but not duplicate these academic reviews.

The Commission shall from time to time make interim reports upon the progress of its inquiry to the Chancellor and Executive Committee and to plenary sessions of the Senate.

1.3 Procedures

The question of the purpose of the University had been discussed periodically by Senate since 1977, but no conclusive action was taken until November 16th, 1979 when the Commission on University Purpose was established through a resolution passed by The Senate. Although fifteen Senate members were appointed to serve on the Commission, the composition during the two-year study fluctuated slightly as is indicated on the title page of this Report.

In addition to an Executive Committee, the Commission established three sub-committees: the History Committee, the Public Awareness Committee, and the Hearings and Submissions Committee, each responsible for a major area of investigation. The Commission as a whole continued to meet regularly for interchange and planning.

The History Committee accepted the responsibility of reviewing the historical development of universities in Europe and in America, as well as of The University of Alberta itself. Two graduate students were hired to assist with these tasks, and worked under the Committee's direction with consultations at various stages. In 1980, Maureen Riddell researched and wrote a "Brief History of The University of Alberta," (Appendix D) as well as a summary of the history. In 1981, Joanne McNeal prepared a comprehensive document entitled "University Purposes: Literature Review and Canadian Overview" (Appendix C). Both documents formed an important framework within which to examine the diverse opinions about universities which were shared with us.

The Public Awareness Committee was charged with conducting a publicity campaign in order to stimulate public interest and thought about the nature and purpose of a university, and to heighten awareness of the Commission's subsequent intent to seek informed input from interested parties.

During September, October and November of 1981, four renowned speakers, highly respected in their fields, were invited to share with members of the Commission and the public their perceptions about the role and function of a university, with the hope that they would stimulate informed discussion. In order to encourage broad public participation, other community groups were invited to co-sponsor the presentations. The speakers included: Sir Gustav Nossal, a world renowned immunologist from Australia, co-sponsored by the City of Edmonton Business Development Office; Dr. Charles Meyers, Dean of Law, Stanford University, co-sponsored by the Downtown Rotary Club; Dr. Pauline Jewett, M.P., former President of Simon Fraser University, co-sponsored by the University Women's Club; and Dr. David Suzuki, broadcaster and geneticist, co-sponsored by the Association of Academic Staff: University of Alberta. Three of the speakers addressed luncheon meetings while Dr. Suzuki's lecture was held on campus and attracted a large number of students.

Since one main objective was extensive media coverage, a public relations firm was hired to provide a dynamic large-scale publicity program. Media information kits were delivered to all radio, television and newsprint media in Edmonton and northern Alberta, and arrangements were made for a number of radio interviews with various members of the Commission. In addition, a special media release was distributed both prior to, and following each of the speaker's presentations.

As one means of receiving public input, Public Awareness Committee members arranged to receive comments and reactions from those attending each of the presentations. Approximately 120 returns were received. Following study of the comments by the Commission members, a summary of opinion was compiled.

The Submissions and Hearings Committee undertook to invite submissions and organize a series of public hearings. Beginning in September 1980, associations which produce regular newsletters were asked to include in one of their issues a letter from the Submissions and Hearings Committee, inviting comment (Appendix B). A similar letter was sent to the publications of the four universities and the fourteen public and private colleges in the province. In addition, letters requesting submissions were sent to approximately ninety groups, voluntary organizations and associations, to constituency presidents of all political parties in Alberta, to all M.L.A.s in northern Alberta, to the Chairmen of the Further Education Councils in northern Alberta, to the presidents of students councils at 21 Edmonton area High Schools, and to various individuals known to have an interest in postsecondary education in the province.

Public hearings held in Grande Prairie, Red Deer, and three Edmonton localities were publicized through newspapers and radio, and attracted informal comment as well as the presentation of briefs.

The Population Research Laboratory of the Department of Sociology assisted the Commission in attempting to determine the image of The University of Alberta held by the general public, by including specific questions regarding the University in its annual Edmonton Area Survey.

Still other views were obtained through informal discussion by members of the Commission with many knowledgeable and interested individuals in the community. During these investigative phases of the Commission's task, members met regularly to review and assess both the process and some of the data.

In May 1981, following study of all of the submissions, members designed a workshop to begin an analysis of the information. As issues of importance were identified by the group, various members of the Commission contributed written summaries of the collective opinion on the subject.

Based, then, on the research, the perceptions of the invited speakers, the public submissions, and the shared reactions and views of individual Commission members, this report represents a synthesis of the elements which we believe best facilitate an understanding of the purposes and functions of a university.

PART TWO

UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: BACKGROUND and RESOURCES

Part Two—UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: BACKGROUND AND RESOURCES

2.1 Historical Development of Universities

The concept of university has evolved from the time of Socrates to the present day (Appendix C). Early developments which have influenced the modern university include: the concern of the ancient Greek with systematic mental training; the Roman *collegia* or guilds which promoted business and craft and which fostered the concept of group support and loyalty; the long lasting influence of the Church from which universities gained many ideas about structure and ritual practices as well as a concept of institutional autonomy; the emphasis at universities in medieval times on law, medicine and theology, and during this era, the beginnings of endowments and of financial support from city and state; and the emergence of a strong Faculty of Arts at The University of Oxford. This liberal arts form and tradition, in which Doctors of Theology taught the “seven liberal arts” of grammar, dialectic, rhetoric, geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, and music, was predominant at the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Paris.

Successive centuries saw many changes in academic powers and in various styles of governance among European universities. During the 1800s the industrial revolution, urbanization, and secularization brought about the formation of new attitudes and behaviours, one of which was a growing interest in rational and scientific explanation. German universities by 1800 had developed new ideas about the nature and purpose of universities, placing emphasis on research and scholarship in all fields and on academic freedom for the professoriate. Both the German and British models had a profound effect on university development in North America.

The early Canadian and American universities were dominated by the religious establishment. By the 20th Century, some were supported by the state and had become more responsive to the technological and manpower needs of society. In Canada, universities tended to be pragmatic in their curriculum, offering study in many professions and occupations and emphasizing undergraduate education. While a great increase in university enrolments followed World War II, it was during the 1960s that universities experienced a period of unprecedented growth. Canada in 1956 had 78,504 full-time university students. Ten years later this number had grown to 352,820. Enrolment in non-university, postsecondary institutions, both colleges and technical institutes, had also increased from 34,045 full-time students in 1956 to 238,500 by 1966.

About the developments in this period of rapid growth, Robin Harris, in his book, *A History of Higher Education in Canada 1663-1960*, concluded:

“By 1960, Canadian higher education was a well organized system with all the facilities needed to fulfill its national, regional, provincial, and community roles, a statement that could not have been made ten years earlier. During the 1960’s, it faced a series of crises: dramatic increases of enrolment; the need to expand into new areas of instruction and research; a radical change in the mood of professors and students with respect not only to the details of courses of study, and the relative importance of instruction and research, but also to the whole question of how universities should be governed internally; the creation of literally dozens of non-degree granting institutions resulting in the establishment at the post-secondary level of an alternative system to that represented by the university; and the consequences of the decision of the provincial governments to assume financial responsibility for all forms of post-secondary education. . . .”

Canadian universities during the 1970s faced levelling or diminishing enrolments, funding constraints, and questions relating to equality of access, meeting social and employment needs, external accountability, and internal self-renewal. The changing environment of higher education led many Canadian universities to a reassessment and rearticulation of their goals.

2.2 Historical Development of The University of Alberta

The development of The University of Alberta has followed the general Canadian trends (Appendix D). Legislation for the establishment of The University of Alberta as a non-sectarian, provincially sponsored institution was initiated by Alberta's first premier, A. C. Rutherford in 1906.

Beginning in 1908 with the faculties of Arts and Science, and a few years later adding Applied Science, Medicine and Law, the University in 1912 was the first in Canada to establish a Department of Extension. After several years of controversy over the merit of an agricultural faculty within the university as opposed to separate agricultural colleges, the Faculty of Agriculture was incorporated into the University in 1915.

The University progressed gradually, experiencing heavy enrolment following World War II and the greatest expansionary phase during the 1960s.

University education in Alberta has grown from a single institution with a teaching staff of four and a student body of forty-five in 1908, to a system of four universities in which a total of more than 31,000 full time students registered in 1981. Postsecondary education is also offered to Alberta students through a wide variety of public and private colleges and technical institutes.

Many of the concerns, aspirations and problems experienced by The University of Alberta during its initial phases are shared today by all the universities in the province. Throughout the years university administrators have been concerned with achieving an equitable balance between teaching and research, between basic research and applied research, and between the University's independence and its public responsibility.

The success of present-day university leaders in satisfying public expectations in their university achievements, and in stimulating public enthusiasm for further academic endeavours will greatly influence the future course of educational development in Alberta.

2.3 Overview of Submissions

Members of the Commission were gratified at the excellent response to their request for submissions.

A total of eighty-eight briefs from a broad cross section of the public addressed a wide range of concerns. Of the submissions received, sixteen were from Associations, thirty-nine from faculty members of The University of Alberta and thirty-three from other individuals. Some of the briefs were comprehensive to the extent that they described in detail all aspects of the goals of the University, while others confined themselves to one or two subjects which were of particular concern.

The public perception of the role of the University as reflected in the briefs emphasized that RESEARCH and TEACHING are the two inseparable primary functions.

In addition to research and teaching, a wide range of academic concerns were addressed:

- liberal education
- general education
- education for the professions
- development of questioning minds
- academic freedom
- academic excellence

Other briefs addressed the relationship of the University to the community and discussed:

- community service
- educational opportunities for rural areas
- life-long learning
- special needs of mature students
- the university as a critic of society

Still others were concerned with administrative aspects such as funding, tenure, and career counselling.

The scope of the Commission did not provide for a full and detailed examination of all the subjects addressed in the briefs, but most of those concerns which relate either directly or indirectly to the purpose of the University have been considered and discussed by the Commission in this report.

Copies of the briefs are on file at the office of The Senate, The University of Alberta.

2.4 Report of the Population Research Laboratory

The Population Research Laboratory of the Department of Sociology, The University of Alberta, assisted the Commission in attempting to determine the public perception of the University, by including specific questions regarding the University in their 1981 Edmonton Area Survey. The Survey involved personal interviews with a statistically valid sample of 400 respondents, and included the following questions:

1. Generally speaking, how satisfied would you say you are with the performance of The University of Alberta?
(Response on a scale of 1 - 8)
2. What should The University of Alberta do more of?
(Rank two)
3. What should The University of Alberta do less of?
(Rank two)
4. Do you presently have any sort of contact with The University of Alberta, e.g. student, parent of student, employee?
5. What are the positive aspects of getting a university education?
(Rank two)
6. What are the negative aspects of getting a university education?
(Rank two)
7. Have you ever attended university?

8. Which one?
9. For how long?

A brief summary of the findings by Dr. L. W. Kennedy, Director of the Population Research Laboratory, follows:

A number of factors are evident from the study of the Edmonton population in terms of the image of The University of Alberta. There is less satisfaction with The University of Alberta among those who attended The University of Alberta than among other respondents (those with university experience and those without university experience).

Comparing those Edmontonians who have attended university there is a strong orientation towards manpower training as an expectation of The University of Alberta among those who have attended The University of Alberta (44%). Jobs are listed as the major benefit of university education. This expectation does not appear to be there with other respondents who have attended other universities (25%). The latter see the university as providing opportunities for personal development (52.5%) in a way not considered by those who have attended The University of Alberta (44%). This result may come about for a variety of reasons. There is very strong pressure for job-training and retraining in this environment. The regional aspect of this University has a tendency to draw from people in the local area and to feed these people back in to the job market locally. Non University of Alberta graduates may come from other areas and therefore look at the University from a very different perspective because of this.

One thing that is strongly evident in all the results is the very high level of "non-response or don't knows" to the questions related to what The University of Alberta should do more of and less of. Proportionally, a greater percentage of the "don't know" responses were found with those respondents who never attended university (27.3% to 65.8% in the question relating to "What should The University of Alberta do more of?"). But in any case, there is still a high percentage of "don't knows" amongst those who have attended university. This is a significant finding and should be carefully considered in any plan for improving The University of Alberta's image. People first of all have to be informed of what the University is here to do before they can give their own opinion on whether or not it's doing its job well. Greater efforts in explaining the University's activities both to non-graduates and to graduates would probably take us in a useful direction in improving this lack of awareness of the University and its activities.

PART THREE

UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: INFLUENCES *for* CHANGE

Part Three—UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: INFLUENCES FOR CHANGE

Prior to the present century, there usually existed in the traditional university a unity of either religious, philosophical or social conviction which provided the institution with a constancy of purpose. Members of the Commission agree that a university traditionally had four interrelated purposes:

Research - to discover new knowledge through the process of research, basic as well as applied;

Teaching - to transmit knowledge through the process of teaching;

Preservation of Knowledge - to preserve the knowledge and culture of the past;

Critic - to use its knowledge and wisdom to test and challenge the values of society.

The modern university reflects the cultural fragmentation of modern society and it is no longer possible to have the same degree of unity of purpose. Major Canadian universities encompass a multitude of moral and political convictions and of personal ways of living, making a statement of university purpose far more complex. Other social and technological changes which are in progress raise questions which undoubtedly will affect the purpose and function of universities.

The following seem to be some of the relevant questions:

Unless established trends are dramatically reversed, it seems apparent that the population of the world will continue to expand rapidly, especially in the Third World areas. In addition, statistics indicate that in the western world the average age of the population will increase at least for the next two decades. *What effect will this have upon university enrolment levels and demands for more educational services by "mature students"?*

The current explosion of knowledge inevitably leads to enormous demands for highly skilled personnel and more and more specialists. *Will society expect the universities to educate all of the people required, or will this task be assigned to other types of educational institutions? If there is to be a sharing, what will be the criteria for deciding who studies where, and who will make these decisions?*

With the rapid rate of technological advancement many of the students whom universities will graduate, especially in the sciences, could find their knowledge obsolete within a few years of graduation. They will need, and the public will demand, that educated people keep abreast of new advances. This will require vast programs of continuing education and upgrading which will involve not only facilities and teachers, but also some way in which the teachers themselves may update their knowledge and techniques. *Will the universities be expected to provide not only the initial education, but also the continuing education and upgrading that will be required; and if so, how will they cope with this somewhat different purpose?*

For several decades universities in the western world have grappled with the question of whether their major purpose is to cater to those scholars who seek higher education for its own sake or those who seek only the education necessary to give them entry to a profession or occupation. Many will argue that it is not an either-or proposition. Nevertheless, universities have been placed under great pressure by a prevailing mass education philosophy to expand their size and add to their programs. These pressures come from public, business and government sources, and tend to push universities into a position of trying to be all things to all people. *Has this resulted in a watering down of the traditional concept of a university education, and turned out graduates who no longer qualify as "educated persons" in the broadest sense of that term?*

Until fairly recently in our history, universities were synonymous with postsecondary education. However, today there is a myriad of institutions other than universities that offer specialized training at higher levels. Often these special institutions can offer courses which overlap or compete with university programs. Many of these institutions are now so well established and accepted by the community that they are permanent components of the educational patterns in our lives. *Should these specialized institutions expand further and take over from the university some of the traditional educational functions?*

From the point of view of universities themselves and those responsible for their management, it seems obvious that the changes which are now occurring or likely to occur must have a profound effect. The costs of operating a university continue to escalate along with everything else in society. Government spokesmen are saying that the public purse cannot keep up with the financial requests from universities and that they should seek financial support from other non-government sources. *What impact if any will this have on such areas as academic freedom and general accountability?*

An emphasis on searching for non-government sources of funding may turn senior university officers into high-powered fund raisers spending a great deal of their time and energies in this area. *If these efforts are not as productive as anticipated or if they fluctuate widely from year to year, will it not impose great stress upon the administration in allocating the resources available amongst the many legitimate requests?*

Reallocation of funds was a phrase seldom heard in the 1960s. The creation of new programs within a university had little impact on existing fields of study. However, when overall growth is no longer possible, the programs and personnel decisions for one faculty have a much more direct impact on the entire university. *Will this lead to undesirable competition amongst faculties?*

Funding constraints will meet opposition from student groups whose expectations will not be able to be met, and may force faculty "unions" to become increasingly militant and in direct opposition to the administration. These concerns and pressures may inevitably distract both the administrators and the faculty from performing their primary roles to the best advantage of all concerned. In addition, many faculty members have

traditionally been prepared to earn less than they might obtain from business and industry in exchange for some of the benefits and lifestyles of a university appointment. *If this climate changes, is there not every likelihood that the most capable faculty will opt for non-academic life where the frustrations are the same but the monetary reward, at least, is better?*

It is the considered opinion of the Commission that if universities are to remain a vital force in society, those responsible for university education must address these concerns and make conscious decisions concerning their resolution.

PART FOUR

UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: WHAT IT SHOULD BE IN THE 1980s

Part Four—UNIVERSITY PURPOSE: WHAT IT SHOULD BE IN THE 1980s

In the sections to follow, the traditional purposes of a university

The Discovery of Knowledge
The Transmission of Knowledge
The Preservation of Knowledge
Service to Society

provide the headings for a discussion of issues which, in the opinion of the Commission, will affect the realization of university purpose, particularly that of The University of Alberta.

The members of the Commission acknowledge that some topics have not been explored in depth and that there may be others which have not been addressed. Nevertheless there has been a real attempt to integrate the ideas and views from the briefs and oral presentations, and from discussions among Commission members, in the formulation of conclusions.

It is hoped that as a result of this report, the general community will gain a better understanding of a university, and that the university community will be stimulated to question, discuss, debate, and reach some conclusions as to its own nature, purpose, and function for the 1980s.

4.1 Discovery of Knowledge

It is clear that what distinguishes a university from any other institute of postsecondary education is its commitment to research. Sir Gustav Nossal stated that "the creation of knowledge through research has come to be seen as the most prestigious and valuable purpose of a university, at least by some leading elements within universities themselves." Not all agree. Whereas, in general, the public agrees that the university should encourage and engage in research activities, there are some who say that a good university should pursue excellence in both research and teaching and neither of these pursuits should suffer at the hand of the other.

Types of Research

The word "Research" implies a search for new knowledge and/or deeper understandings. Bonneau and Corry in *Search For the Optimum* suggest that a recognition of the different meanings of the word "research" will be useful to universities in the distribution of responsibilities and finances. In addition to distinguishing between basic and applied research, they differentiate between "frontier research" and "reflective inquiry". "Frontier research" is primarily empirical, based on experiment and observation in a specialized field, while "reflective inquiry" refers to a primary involvement with the re-evaluation and re-interpretation of existing knowledge. It encompasses the synthesis of knowledge from many sources, and is more concerned with breadth of view than with minute analysis. Using the word "research" in its broadest sense, it is the Commission's view that all members of a university faculty must be involved in some research activity.

Interrelationship of Research and Teaching

Several briefs to the Commission stressed the need for the university to place equal value on each of the teaching and research functions of faculty. While it is recognized that some

faculty members are good at one and indifferent to the other, it is important that all faculty be involved to some extent in both. Teaching can become sterile in content if the educator is not involved with the advancement of knowledge. On the other hand, the “publish or perish” attitude can just as easily encourage sterile research for the sake of publication. In the final analysis, it was noted that if an educational institution aspires to the title “university” its atmosphere must encourage faculty members to strive for excellence in both teaching and research.

Research Funding

Notable advances in research require careful long-term planning and the assurance of ongoing financial support. It is imperative for universities to have a funding process which respects academic freedom and encourages creative initiative. Inadequate operating budgets place increasing pressures on universities to make decisions about the relative emphasis on basic or applied research. The traditional function of universities has been to carry out original basic, discovery-oriented research which results in new knowledge, and which often points the way to applications in the future. However, in recent years, universities have responded increasingly to certain requests from government, business and industry to undertake research projects of a practical nature for a specific sponsoring group. These requests are generally accompanied by funding which universities welcome as an additional source of income for research.

However, this “targetted” research instills uneasiness in some. While opportunities to do problem-oriented research in conjunction with other groups are appreciated, there is some fear that the basic research function of a university may lose out in the pressure to respond to the well-financed demands for applied research. Although it is true that now, more than ever before, new partnerships between universities, governments and private industry will be needed in order to make the best use of knowledge and resources, it is vital that The University of Alberta endeavours to ensure adequate funding for its basic research interests, which must remain the focus of its research activities.

The establishment by the Government of Alberta of the Heritage Foundation for Medical Research will have an enormous impact on certain areas of research. The Foundation, through a system of awards and grants, supports not only researchers in the basic medical and clinical sciences, including pharmacy and dentistry, but also researchers in other departments such as chemistry, zoology, genetics, microbiology, and biomedical engineering. There will be a need for similar funding in other fields if Alberta is to live up to her potential as a centre of research excellence in North America.

Conclusions

1. Since all sectors of society benefit from the work of universities, provision of the stable, long-term funding required for basic research in universities should be the joint responsibility of provincial and federal governments.
2. A research policy is needed at The University of Alberta to provide an overall framework of goals and purposes. In the Commission’s view, two major goals should be the pursuit of excellence, and maintenance of a strong basic research focus for the University. A research policy might also set some general guidelines for the most appropriate ways to work co-operatively with governments, other universities and research institutes, private industry, and other interested groups.

3. The University of Alberta should take steps to strengthen its graduate studies program in order to develop a cadre of skilled researchers and assistants with the potential of becoming the faculty of the future. Included might be:
 - a) appropriate financial incentives for graduate students ; and
 - b) appropriate financial incentives and facilities to attract researchers of established reputation to this University.
4. Universities should recognize that research and teaching functions are of equal importance. In support of this, The University of Alberta should revise its policies on promotions and salary increases in such a way that equal weight is given to the research and teaching activities of faculty members.
5. The University of Alberta should encourage an interdisciplinary approach to research and recognize the importance of viewing scientific advances in a holistic way.
6. An effective ongoing public relations program is needed by The University of Alberta to keep the public, government and industry fully informed about the research activities and the achievements of research at the University.

4.2 Transmission of Knowledge

Learning and Teaching

The transmission of knowledge involves both learning and teaching. The kind of learning which takes place at universities during the 80s must prepare students to meet the challenges of society. It must develop the kind of individuals who are able to shape and control events, rather than react to them. It has been said that at most universities today, education is predominantly oriented toward a "maintenance type" of learning (Botkin), typified by passive assimilation of information. Universities have a responsibility to foster creative, innovative learning, a type of learning which involves true participation and initiative and which must include the questioning of existing knowledge and the redesign and recombination of knowledge where needed.

Several briefs received by the Commission stated that the quality of university teaching requires attention. Much of the public criticism levelled at universities is based on the frustrations of students who were enrolled in courses in which the instructional process was perceived to be poor.

In the Commission's view, university teaching must not be taken for granted as has at times been the case, for teaching is basic to everything a university must do. Commission members are of the opinion that the function of a good teacher is: to motivate students toward self inquiry; to stimulate creative and innovative kinds of learning; to teach by example the skills of selection and organization of material; and to clarify complex or confused areas of knowledge. Sir Gustav Nossal, speaking about university purpose, stated:

"Teaching remains a central responsibility, for what is involved is not the transmission of facts or vocational skills, but the instilling of a love of learning; of a commitment to continuing education as a way of life.

University teaching deals primarily in concepts and this is perhaps the chief single thing that demarcates a university from other institutions of tertiary education.”

Briefs to the Commission pointed out that research efforts at The University of Alberta generally gain more recognition than do efforts in teaching. L. P. Bonneau and J. A. Corry (op. cit.), state:

“The great effort to build up a research potential in the last decade has, by oversight rather than deliberate intention, made teaching come second with some staff members, and with many universities as a consequence of their policies on promotions and salary increases.”

The issue of the quality of instruction is difficult to deal with, partly because of the difficulty in defining what constitutes good teaching. Mechanisms for defining and for rewarding good teaching are necessary, otherwise the faculty member will turn his or her attention to those areas of faculty responsibility in which more concrete measures of performance are present, e.g. research, publication.

The Commission recognized that The University of Alberta is concerned about the quality of teaching and that a number of steps have been taken to improve teaching standards. For instance, the University has recently instituted a program of undergraduate teaching awards which is designed to encourage the pursuit of excellence in teaching. The Committee for the Improvement of Teaching and Learning offers optional seminars and programs on topics related to the improvement of teaching. While these programs are commendable, there is still much to be done in striving for teaching excellence.

Commission members found that, in the general community, the concept of tenure is perceived as being detrimental to teaching excellence. There appears to be a pervasive notion that the job guarantee aspect of tenure makes faculty complacent and lessens creative initiative. Many in the community do not appear to appreciate that historically tenure was designed to reinforce academic freedom, to allow a faculty member the right to a different opinion and to act as a critic of society.

Some people hold the view that with faculty agreements and human rights legislation now in place and being enforced, there is no longer a need for tenure since no person can be dismissed without just cause. They suggest that the abolition of tenure would in fact change things very little, but would do much to enhance the public perception of university professors. Still others feel that tenure, as it was originally conceived, has validity, but that the implementation of tenure has not been consistent with the original intention.

Conclusions:

1. Universities have a responsibility to emphasize creative and innovative kinds of learning.
2. Effective mechanisms for evaluation of the teaching process need to be developed.
3. Outstanding teachers at The University of Alberta should be given more recognition. Teaching excellence should be rewarded not only through special awards such as those currently in place, but through policies on promotion as well. Evaluation of an individual's contribution to the University should recognize that excellence in teaching is equally as important as excellence in research.

4. The practice of using graduate students to teach freshman and junior classes should be kept to a minimum.
5. The University of Alberta should re-examine the validity and present application of tenure.

Education For the Professions

The University of Alberta traditionally has been committed to preparing students for careers. The Commission recognizes that all studies at the university level can be a valuable preparation for a career or profession, but some programs are more directly oriented toward a vocation than others. Many briefs received by the Commission strongly supported the continuation of these programs, and made a number of suggestions for responding more adequately to the changing needs of society.

Conclusions:

1. Development and maintenance of the highest standards of professional education should be major objectives of The University of Alberta.
2. Rather than the development of separate institutions for professional education, professional faculties should be located within a university, as all students benefit immeasurably from exposure to a wide variety of people, disciplines, and points of view.
3. The University should ensure that graduates of professional programs have, in addition to professional expertise, sufficient education in the humanities and liberal arts to enable them to function as leaders in a society which has a need for an increased emphasis on social, environmental and ethical values.
4. The University should cooperate with professional bodies in providing continuing education programs of the highest level.
5. The University should be responsive to emerging needs:
 - (a) for professional programs available in the evening or on a part-time basis; and
 - (b) for new professional programs.

Liberal Education

Submissions to the Commission as well as survey results have indicated that the majority of students and the general public think that the university's primary responsibility is to educate the competent professionals and skilled manpower needed by today's society. With regard to The University of Alberta, there is some concern that the emphasis on career-oriented education is channelling more and more funding into practical programs and short-changing the liberal arts area of the university. Concern also exists that the University may be producing "specialized technicians" in response to societal demands, without being equally committed to providing a good liberal education.

Many briefs stated that an essential part of all university education should be a component termed “liberal arts”, “liberal education”, “general education” or “humanities”.

By these terms, the Commission understood a reference to the kind of education which:

- encompasses the academic courses which are studied primarily for their cultural, esthetic or ethical value rather than for any immediate practical use, i.e. philosophy, literature, language, history, natural science.
- should emphasize the cultivation of the intellectual tools considered essential for a free person: the capacity to think, make judgements, and communicate effectively.
- must foster adaptability and the development of broad interdisciplinary perspectives: the ability to see relationships between disciplines and to view issues in broad terms.

The Association of American Colleges has developed a definition of liberal education in terms of outcome, or characteristics that are nurtured. It suggests that an understanding of liberal learning should include:

- a focus on making the individual a continuing active, independent learner, rather than a passive learner dependent on others' authority;
- an emphasis on knowledge and skills that are generic but essential for an active, responsible person in any vocation, profession and activity as a citizen;
- preparation for productive work that includes developing the capacity and flexibility to shift careers, and to continue to develop competencies;
- a capacity to develop and refine a sense of values in one's self, to understand the values of others, and to apply values and ethical principles in actions;
- an appreciation of one's own cultural heritage;
- an understanding of other cultures;
- a recognition of societal needs and individual responsibilities and the context within which they must be addressed;
- a concern with future needs and problems, caused by cultural, economic, political, and technological changes in society.

These and other similar premises see liberal education as liberating, as leading to full citizenship, and as providing societal as well as personal improvement.

The Commission wholeheartedly endorses this concept of a liberal education and suggests that a reaffirmation of the importance of studies which develop these characteristics is needed.

Conclusions:

1. The importance of liberal learning as an integral part of a university education is not fully appreciated by a large proportion of the public.
2. Graduates of universities must be more than technically adept and scientifically well-grounded. Their education should provide them with skills of decision making and effective communication, an esthetic appreciation, an understanding of humanistic values and approaches, moral and ethical problems, social responsibility, and broad interdisciplinary perspectives.
3. A good liberal education must be more than an accumulation of unrelated bits of specialized knowledge. University faculty members have a responsibility to design curricula in which courses have relationship and direction.
4. A university, if it is to retain its identity and remain different from a technical school, must uphold its allegiance to the idea of liberal education.

4.3 Preservation of Knowledge

Originally a "Universitas", a community of students, was created by bringing together the available teachers, students and books into one location. When there were fewer teachers, students and books, this was more easily accomplished. In the light of the accumulation of knowledge since that time, it is evident that a university can neither be all things to all people, nor can it be all things to all knowledge.

Decisions about which materials to preserve and transmit have become an increasingly difficult task. Universities have a responsibility to preserve the knowledge of the past, to re-examine and refine that knowledge, and to create new knowledge. In fulfilling these roles, a university can be a dynamic link between the achievements of the past and the advances of the future.

The tremendous increase in the volume of knowledge during recent decades will make access to information a key factor in the utilization of a university's storehouse of knowledge. New advances in technology have brought new methods of storing, processing and transmitting information. The use of computers and electronic technology for information storage, as teaching aids, or for self study is developing rapidly and those involved in "the knowledge industry" must be cognizant of new technologies when planning for the eighties.

Storage of Knowledge

It has been said that the total volume of knowledge which has accumulated over the last two thousand years will double again in the next six years, and will continue to grow at an exponential rate. Universities have traditionally relied on libraries and museums for the storage of knowledge, but the high cost of books and sheer volume of knowledge dictate that better methods of storage must be found. The answer lies with the vast capabilities of the electronic age, whereby vast amounts of knowledge can be stored electronically and with much more flexibility than traditional libraries. When information is stored electronically it will be possible to change, renew and update material on an ongoing basis. The University could then become a truly dynamic repository of knowledge.

Retrieval of Knowledge

Information is useful only if it is readily accessible, and information stored in a computer can be much more accessible than information stored in a traditional library. The vast capabilities of the computer enable the indexing and retrieval of smaller modules of information. It is possible to be much more selective with electronically stored information and to retrieve only those portions which are relevant to the user.

The Commission suggests that the high costs of transportation to and from the university, the high costs of providing books and physical facilities, and above all the increasing cost of providing enough academic staff, will dictate that the university should fully utilize and expand the use of the electronic advances for the storage and dissemination of information.

The Commission recognizes the value of participation in campus life, of personal contact between student and professor and between student and student, and is not recommending that everything can be learned while staying at home and utilizing the electronic wizardry. However, the Commission suggests that by using the available technology, some of the student's own study could be done very effectively in the home setting. Today's large classes at the university provide for very little personal contact between professor and student. The use of electronic technology could release the academic staff from some of the routine lecturing and provide more time to meet with small groups of students for discussion and debate. In addition, it would make a university education more accessible to the many individuals whose physical presence at the university is not possible.

Conclusions:

The University of Alberta should:

1. Continue to research and develop an electronic information storage and retrieval system for the University which could be readily accessed by the entire University, and in some instances by the community at large;
2. Continue to research and develop the dissemination of information to students, both on campus and in the home, through the imaginative use of electronic media;
3. Provide opportunities for faculty members to become knowledgeable about the potential uses of electronic technology in education.

4.4 Service to Society

A university, since it is a creation of society, must not be isolated from or insensitive to society's expectations and needs. It has a responsibility to use its knowledge for the benefit of society-at-large. Often, however, there are discrepancies in what a university perceives as its directives from its different publics, and this invariably sets up tensions and conflicts. Therefore periodic redefinition of a university's goals and purposes by the elements within the university, by government, and by the public at large, will be in the best interests of all.

Leadership Role

Traditionally, society has expected a university to provide leadership. As a community of scholars, a university is expected to study the nature of society as it evolves, anticipate needs and difficulties in the context of local as well as global issues, and be involved in designing innovative solutions to society's problems. For example, if a university cannot provide all the professionals required by society, the university in its leadership function has a responsibility to extend the expertise of the professionally trained individual as far as possible, perhaps by recommending the development of new para-professional groups, whose training need not be at the university, nor so extensive or expensive.

In carrying out its leadership function, a university is also expected to act as a critic of society. A university's basic commitment to the pursuit of truth makes the university the institution society relies upon to provide honest answers or opinions based as carefully as possible on available facts. A university is obliged to question what is happening in society, to question the values, processes or decisions of other institutions and powers in the community. This function of a university is not always appreciated.

In recent years, the university's role as a leader of society has been compromised by perceptions in society that the university exhibits diffuse lines of authority, and lacks a sense of its own direction. This perhaps may be attributed to the response by the university to the demands of the 1960s for more broadly-based decision making. The result too often has been unwieldy mechanisms and time-consuming committee work for faculty members. Has there been an overdose of democracy?

Conclusions:

1. The leadership role of a university in society is manifested through its functions of critic and resource. A university has an obligation to question what is happening in society, to question the values, processes or decisions of other institutions and powers in the community. In addition, a university must take the initiative in identifying societal problems and in applying original and creative thought in the search for solutions. Only strong and independent institutions can be expected to perform this critical function effectively.
2. In order for the university to retain its credibility as a leader and critic of society it must continually question its own values, processes and priorities in an objective manner.
3. A continuing challenge to the university is to reconcile its own autonomy with the changing demands of society. A university as a publicly financed institution must be cognizant of the broad parameters set by government and society-at-large. But the university must retain the freedom to make the choices it considers in its best interests within the scope of its established objectives and purposes. It must continue to resist the imposition of objectives that adversely affect the learning, teaching, and research to which it is committed.

Community Resource

There is a long-standing assumption that the substantial resources provided by the Government of Alberta to the University should produce benefits to the people of Alberta beyond the essential functions of teaching, research, and the preservation of knowledge. The Universities Act, Section 15.2 states "it is a duty and function of each university to contribute to the educational and cultural advancement of the people of Alberta at large".

Certainly in the successful performance of its primary functions of teaching and research, a university serves its society. A university contributes to its community simply by educating more people in meaningful ways and by providing opportunities for individuals to develop their skills and talents. A university serves its community by fostering the development of leadership skills: skills of adaptability and problem solving, an appreciation of culture and an understanding of the broader society in which one lives.

The University of Alberta provides many other services to the community which are by-products of its academic and professional activities: the sponsorship of concerts, lectures, theatre, arts exhibits, athletic events; the provision of legal clinics, a variety of health services and agricultural, technological and consumer advice. In addition to these social benefits, the University contributes to the economic growth of the community by providing competent professionals, highly skilled technologists, innovative researchers, and knowledgeable faculty members to act as consultants and advisors to government and industry.

Conclusion:

1. The value to society of a university, apart from the obvious function of career preparation, is not fully appreciated by the general community. Nor is the community-at-large cognizant of all the cultural, social and economic benefits which it derives from the presence of a university.

Accessibility:

Ideally a university should be able to accommodate all those applicants who are academically qualified. However, limitations do exist, such as availability of student finances and residency or immigration requirements. In addition there are a number of other factors which have necessitated the establishment of quotas in certain faculties.

In 1981 the Universities Co-ordinating Council of Alberta in consultation with universities and colleges in the province prepared a report on quotas. The report suggested that quotas were established for different reasons in the various faculties, but generally were due to a combination of the following factors:

- a need to maintain the quality of the educational experience
- difficulties in obtaining sufficient funding or qualified faculty
- cost effectiveness, to ensure that programs are more fully subscribed
- market demand for graduates
- limited practicum places available, or intense supervision requirements within program
- desire to maintain balance within the university, between professional faculties and liberal arts, or undergraduate and graduate students

- desire to obtain students with characteristics appropriate for success in the program, and/or employment

There are those who advocate the establishment of separate professional educational institutions, if universities are not able to provide the number of professionals required by the marketplace, or fulfill the demands of qualified students for professional education. The Commission feels that this would be highly undesirable from all perspectives.

Within quota faculties the criteria used to make admission decisions differ from one faculty to another. In the few instances where only one criterion is used, it is the applicant's previous academic performance as shown by the grade point average. Commission members have voiced concern about the admissions criteria for quota faculties, and agree with various admissions committees about the need for continuing re-evaluation of selection procedures.

Conclusions:

1. The University, together with professional bodies, should initiate appropriate planning to attempt to more fully meet student demand and long term market demand.
2. The University of Alberta should work cooperatively with Canada Employment and Immigration and counselling services at the high school level in order to assist students in becoming fully aware of future career opportunities before enrolling in a university program.

Extension Role

A special effort to respond to community need has been made over the years by The University of Alberta through its extension function.

A 1974 Senate Task Force on the Future of the Extension Function defined university extension as "any activities that bring the resources of the university to the service of the people". It was concluded that service to the people of Alberta at large should have status comparable to the traditional teaching and research activities of the University. The Task Force recommended that The University of Alberta should make a university-wide commitment to the development of its role as a major community resource.

Continuing adult education is the focus of extension activities, primarily through non-credit general interest courses concentrating in Fine Arts, Liberal Studies, and Community Resources Development. Continuing education in business and professional fields is a large part of the Faculty of Extension's program. Special certificate programs in Public Administration, Computers and Business Data Processing, Management Development, Personnel Administration, Employee Benefits Administration, and Real Estate contribute to the adult education role of the faculty. In addition, there are the services provided through the Extension Library, the Educational Media Services, the Adult Student Centre and the Legal Resource Centre.

While recognizing the value of many of the programs and services in the Faculty of Extension, the provision of some of the general interest courses is open to question. There is some argument that a university is not the proper place for non-credit courses of general interest; that the facilities and resources could be better used for more traditional operations of the university.

This is countered by the view that universities have an obligation to meet the demands of the community and to make their resources available to as broad a segment of the population as possible. In addition, a university benefits through provision of these courses by maintaining a closer contact with the wider community and thus is better able to assess its emerging needs.

University Extension can be a stepping stone to enrolment in the University's credit courses. Many students, and mature students in particular, lack the confidence to enrol in credit courses, but are encouraged and stimulated by their experience in extension courses.

Conclusion:

1. The value of continued learning throughout life is widely accepted. There is not such unanimous agreement about the extent to which a university should be involved in the provision of non-credit courses to the public.

Lifelong Learning

The changes in age, lifestyle and mobility of our population and the changes in educational pursuits are making new demands on universities. The occupational demands of a rapidly changing technological society, the increase in leisure time, the sheer complexities of the social institutions which govern our lives, and the growing sophistication of the adult population about education have contributed to a spiralling demand not just for traditional kinds of education, but for many different levels and kinds of educational experience.

The increase in the numbers of older students at university will require more flexible arrangements as many wish to pursue their educational goals in conjunction with jobs and over an extended time frame. More occupations than ever are based on high levels of technical knowledge and skills which are subject to rapid change and will require upgrading every five to ten years.

In addition, there are thousands of people in the middle or later years looking for opportunities to learn. Many who were unable to take advantage of postsecondary education or life-enrichment courses in their early years, now eagerly seek avenues to explore new knowledge and skills. The Spring Session for Seniors reflects one such avenue which has been enthusiastically received by retired persons.

In Canada, the opportunities for lifelong learning experiences have been developed and nurtured by divisions or faculties of Extension or Continuing Education. Many of these settings have provided exciting experiences for mature, part-time students to pursue "man's unending search for truth". The tremendous growth of the Faculty of Extension of The University of Alberta is evident in the 1980/81 Annual Report, showing that the total number of registrations has increased by 19,000 in one year to approximately 35,000 in 1981.

Briefs to the Commission from mature students indicated frustrations with entrance requirements, residency requirements, grade procedures and limitations on prescribed courses within certain programs. Residents of rural areas called for more consideration of their particular needs.

In order to meet these expectations of society, the University will have to broaden the range of course opportunities in time and space, both on and off campus, making use of new delivery methods and whatever tools and settings will enhance the learning experience for older persons.

Conclusion:

1. Some of the university's procedures will require change. In-person registration procedures, time limits, residence requirements, scheduling, academic year, access to support services, campus based instruction, course requirements, etc. will have to be examined with a view to being more responsive to the needs of its many client groups.

National and International Responsibilities

The Province of Alberta should make a special effort to ensure that its contributions on the educational scene within Canada and throughout the world are substantial.

The University of Alberta is unique in that geographically it is the most northern university in Canada, and closest to the major centres of population in the Yukon and Northwest Territories. The University therefore has a responsibility to respond to the very special educational needs of the people in northern Canada.

The scope of the University's international involvement was outlined by University of Alberta President, Myer Horowitz, in his November 1980 Convocation Address:

"... If we are to be considered a major university, then we must have an international as well as a more local focus. ... In addition to the service this university provides to international students who come here, many of my colleagues have been actively involved in countries other than Canada. ... On any day of the year we have several people serving as consultants in some other country around the world. ... Several of our departments and faculties have been involved in special instructional and research projects in other countries. Colleagues in Physics collaborate with the Research Institute for Iron, Steel and other metals at Tohoku University in Japan; some in Zoology are involved in research in coral reef fishes in Barbados; several in Civil Engineering relate to their opposite numbers in a university in Brazil; and my colleagues in Agriculture continue to be actively involved in the dairy exchange with the College of Dairying in Hokkaido, Japan. ...

What should be our aim with regard to the international dimension during the next several years? I am pleased that we have been successful in underlining the value to this university and to Albertans of our having international students among us. But as was recommended in the January 1979 Report of the Senate Task Force on Visiting International Students in Alberta, we must aim for a better mix of students from different countries. I am troubled that while the number of international students remains constant at approximately six percent of the student body, there has been a dramatic decrease during the last three years of students from developing nations."

In the Senate Report referred to above, there was some alarm expressed concerning the large number of places being taken by foreign students to the detriment of Alberta residents. However an origins survey by the Administration disclosed a very small foreign enrolment. The figure is in the 5-6% range and the number of countries from which students come is dropping.

Most international students come from just three countries. Were the University to react to the "Alberta only" mentality, whether in terms of teachers or learners, it would be missing the opportunity of adding vibrancy, new ideas, and first hand appreciation of other cultures to its educational environment.

Albertans are fortunate in having had a generous scholarship program initiated by the provincial government last year. However, the Alberta Heritage Scholarships are designed primarily for the benefit of Alberta residents. Making some of these scholarships available to other residents of Canada would be an investment in our country, a strengthening of our nation through education.

Establishing "Alberta Heritage World Scholarships" for foreign students would benefit the province as well. The Alberta Government for many years has been sending trade delegations throughout the world seeking markets for Alberta products. Any success brings benefit in varying degrees to all, but certainly in large measure to the producers. In return, producers could very well match any Government contribution to the suggested scholarships. It is the educated people who will emerge as the industrial, educational and political leaders of the developing countries. The type and setting of their education will have a profound and lasting effect on such people. How much more acceptable for instance, might be the reception of a Canadian trade delegation by people who were educated in Canada. Overseas students could also be of assistance as a resource in the planning and execution of trade and aid missions abroad.

If we as a nation are to trade and communicate effectively with other nations around the world, we must prepare our students for this role. The University could place greater emphasis on student exchanges, and on international studies whereby students would have a greater opportunity and even an obligation to learn more about other countries and develop a clearer understanding of them.

Conclusions:

1. The University of Alberta has a responsibility to respond to the special educational needs of people in northern Canada.
2. In The University of Alberta curriculum a greater emphasis should be placed on international studies in order to provide students with a broad understanding of other cultures, of the interaction of nations, and of global issues.
3. The Government of Alberta should provide perpetuating scholarships for Canadian and foreign students to attend The University of Alberta.

Relationship with Other Postsecondary Institutions

Until twenty years ago postsecondary education in Alberta meant The University of Alberta. However, during the 1960s, universities were incorporated in Calgary and Lethbridge and a number of non-university postsecondary institutions were established in the province.

In 1970, Athabasca University was created, offering opportunities in distance education. By 1981 its features of flexible admission policies, unique individualized programs of study, and tutorial assistance had attracted 5,100 students.

A Universities Coordinating Council, composed of representatives from each Alberta university, was established to facilitate cooperative decision making in matters affecting all the universities. The Council acts as an advisory body to the Minister of Advanced Education and Manpower and to the General Faculties Council of each institution. A non-voting representative from each of the university-affiliated private colleges is invited to participate in all meetings of the Council.

The Alberta Council on Admissions & Transfers mediates between universities and colleges in matters of admissions and transfers and publishes the Provincial Transfer Guide which offers detailed procedural guidelines in these matters.

To meet the growing needs of the smaller communities in the north-west region of Alberta, a cooperative venture began in 1980 when Athabasca University, Fairview College, Grande Prairie Regional College, and the Alberta Vocation Centre at Grouard took the initiative and established an educational consortium to provide credit programs in the Peace River region. The Department of Advanced Education and Manpower has now adopted this consortium model as a way to extend services through existing institutions and agencies in sparsely populated rural areas. Consortia have been set up to provide credit programs in other Alberta regions including the Drumheller area, Crowsnest Pass/Pincher Creek, Yellowhead area, and Drayton Valley region. The University of Alberta is involved in the Yellowhead, Drayton Valley, and Peace River consortia. The Department of Advanced Education and Manpower has agreed to provide financing to cover administrative costs while the institutions making up each consortium will share program expenses.

Conclusions:

1. Restrictive funding may require an increased specialization of roles by postsecondary institutions. This will make it increasingly important for each institution to know which things it alone can do. The University of Alberta should have a policy which honestly evaluates what it can or cannot provide, and should eliminate the programs and services which can be provided more appropriately, or at less cost by other institutions.
2. The assurance of a quality of excellence in education will be one of the biggest challenges ahead. Maintenance of the highest educational standards will require flexibility, sensitivity, understanding, and increased cooperation on the part of The University of Alberta and all the institutes of postsecondary education in the province.

PART FIVE
CONCLUSIONS

Part Five—CONCLUSIONS

As stated in the Rationale, it is hoped that conclusions which have been drawn will serve The University of Alberta by pointing out issues which require particular attention, and assist the community-at-large to better understand the nature, purposes and functions of a university. The General Conclusions highlight areas of major importance as perceived by the Commission. Also listed are the conclusions which appear in context within the body of the Report.

General

1. Commission members believe that The University of Alberta would benefit from the process of developing a statement of purpose, which would provide a philosophical framework within which faculties and departments could enunciate their more specific objectives.
2. There is a need to reaffirm the primary value of broad and comprehensive forms of higher education. A university education must do more than provide occupational training. A university education should foster the skills of critical thought, decision-making, effective communication and an understanding of humanistic values and approaches, moral and ethical problems, social responsibility and broad interdisciplinary perspectives.
3. Differences in perception appear to exist with regard to the adequacy of funding of The University of Alberta. The University community has stressed that it is underfunded, while the provincial government has stated that funding has been generous. There is a need for more public discussion and debate on the question of public funding for postsecondary institutions.
4. A university must enjoy a large measure of autonomy in order to function well in its various roles. A university must retain the freedom to make the choices it considers in its best interest, within the scope of its purposes and objectives. In order to merit its autonomy, a university ought to be sensitive to the needs of society, and must perform conscientiously at a high level in all areas of endeavour.
5. The Edmonton Area Survey conducted by the Population Research Laboratory indicated that many members of the public have little or no knowledge of The University of Alberta. The interests of the University would be well served by the development of an ongoing, effective public awareness program which would keep the general public informed about the activities and accomplishments of the University.

Research

1. Since all sectors of society benefit from the work of universities, provision of the stable, long-term funding required for basic research in universities should be the joint responsibility of provincial and federal governments.

2. A research policy is needed at The University of Alberta to provide an overall framework of goals and purposes. In the Commission's view, two major goals should be the pursuit of excellence, and maintenance of a strong basic research focus for the University. A research policy might also set some general guidelines for the most appropriate ways to work co-operatively with governments, other universities and research institutes, private industry, and other interested groups.
3. The University of Alberta should take steps to strengthen its graduate studies program in order to develop a cadre of skilled researchers and assistants with the potential of becoming the faculty of the future. Included might be:
 - a) appropriate financial incentives for graduate students; and
 - b) appropriate financial incentives and facilities to attract researchers of established reputation to this University.
4. Universities should recognize that research and teaching functions are of equal importance. In support of this, The University of Alberta should revise its policies on promotions and salary increases in such a way that equal weight is given to the research and teaching activities of faculty members.
5. The University of Alberta should encourage an interdisciplinary approach to research and recognize the importance of viewing scientific advances in a holistic way.
6. An effective ongoing public relations program is needed by The University of Alberta to keep the public, government and industry fully informed about the research activities and achievements of research at the University.

Teaching

1. Universities have a responsibility to emphasize creative and innovative kinds of learning.
2. Effective mechanisms for evaluation of the teaching process need to be developed.
3. Outstanding teachers at The University of Alberta should be given more recognition. Teaching excellence should be rewarded not only through special awards such as those currently in place, but through policies on promotion as well. Evaluation of an individual's contribution to the University should recognize that excellence in teaching is equally as important as excellence in research.
4. The practice of using graduate students to teach freshman and junior classes should be kept to a minimum.
5. The University of Alberta should re-examine the validity and present application of tenure.

Education for the Professions

1. Development and maintenance of the highest standards of professional education should be major objectives of the University of Alberta.
2. Rather than the development of separate institutions for professional education, professional faculties should be located within a university, as all students benefit immeasurably from exposure to a wide variety of people, disciplines, and points of view.
3. The University should ensure that graduates of professional programs have, in addition to professional expertise, sufficient education in the humanities and liberal arts to enable them to function as leaders in a society which has a need for an increased emphasis on social, environmental and ethical values.
4. The University should cooperate with professional bodies in providing continuing education programs of the highest level.
5. The University should be responsive to emerging needs:
 - (a) for professional programs available in the evening or on a part-time basis; and
 - (b) for new professional programs.

Liberal Education

1. The importance of liberal learning as an integral part of a university education is not fully appreciated by a large proportion of the public.
2. Graduates of universities must be more than technically adept and scientifically well-grounded. Their education should provide them with skills of decision making and effective communication, an esthetic appreciation, an understanding of humanistic values and approaches, moral and ethical problems, social responsibility, and broad interdisciplinary perspectives.
3. A good liberal education must be more than an accumulation of unrelated bits of specialized knowledge. University faculty members have a responsibility to design curricula in which courses have relationship and direction.
4. A university, if it is to retain its identity and remain different from a technical school, must uphold its allegiance to the idea of liberal education.

Preservation of Knowledge

The University of Alberta should:

1. Continue to research and develop an electronic information storage and retrieval system for the University which could be readily accessed by the entire University, and in some instances by the community at large;

2. Continue to research and develop the dissemination of information to students, both on campus and in the home, through the imaginative use of electronic media;
3. Provide opportunities for faculty members to become knowledgeable about the potential uses of electronic technology in education.

Leadership Role

1. The leadership role of a university in society is manifested through its functions of critic and resource. A university has an obligation to question what is happening in society, to question the values, processes or decisions of other institutions and powers in the community. In addition, a university must take the initiative in identifying societal problems and in applying original and creative thought in the search for solutions. Only strong and independent institutions can be expected to perform this critical function effectively.
2. In order for the university to retain its credibility as a leader and critic of society it must continually question its own values, processes and priorities in an objective manner.
3. A continuing challenge to the university is to reconcile its own autonomy with the changing demands of society. A university as a publicly financed institution must be cognizant of the broad parameters set by government and society-at-large. But the university must retain the freedom to make the choices it considers in its best interests within the scope of its established objectives and purposes. It must continue to resist the imposition of objectives that adversely affect the learning, teaching, and research to which it is committed.

Community Resource

1. The value to society of a university, apart from the obvious function of career preparation, is not fully appreciated by the general community. Nor is the community-at-large cognizant of all the cultural, social and economic benefits which it derives from the presence of a university.

Accessibility

1. The University together with professional bodies should initiate appropriate planning to attempt to more fully meet student demand and long term market demand.
2. The University of Alberta should work cooperatively with Canada Employment and Immigration and counselling services at the high school level in order to assist students in becoming fully aware of future career opportunities before enrolling in a university program.

Extension Role

1. The value of continued learning throughout life is widely accepted. There is not such unanimous agreement about the extent to which a university should be involved in the provision of non-credit courses to the public.

Lifelong Learning

1. Some of the university's procedures will require change. In-person registration procedures, time limits, residence requirements, scheduling, academic year, access to support services, campus based instruction, course requirements, etc. will have to be examined with a view to being more responsive to the needs of its many client groups.

National and International Responsibilities

1. The University of Alberta has a responsibility to respond to the special educational needs of people in northern Canada.
2. In The University of Alberta curriculum a greater emphasis should be placed on international studies in order to provide students with a broad understanding of other cultures, of the interaction of nations, and of global issues.
3. The Government of Alberta should provide perpetuating scholarships for Canadian and foreign students to attend The University of Alberta.

Relationship with Other Postsecondary Institutions

1. Restrictive funding may require an increased specialization of roles by postsecondary institutions. This will make it increasingly important for each institution to know which things it alone can do. The University of Alberta should have a policy which honestly evaluates what it can or cannot provide, and should eliminate the programs and services which can be provided more appropriately, or at less cost by other institutions.
2. The assurance of a quality of excellence in education will be one of the biggest challenges ahead. Maintenance of the highest educational standards will require flexibility, sensitivity, understanding, and increased cooperation of The University of Alberta and of all the institutes of post-secondary education in the province.

PART SIX

STATEMENT of the NATURE and PURPOSE of a UNIVERSITY

Part Six—STATEMENT OF THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF A UNIVERSITY

The contemporary public view of the purpose of a university is consistent with its historic and traditional role in that Teaching and Research are seen to be its primary functions. A degree of difference exists, however, concerning a university's function of service to society. A university today is expected to have increased sensitivity to prevailing social and economic conditions.

Nature of a University

A university is a primary intellectual centre for the preservation and advancement of knowledge and the preparation of men and women required to meet the emerging needs of society. It is characterized by a commitment to reason, objectivity, excellence, intellectual independence and scholarly cooperation. As a "community of scholars" it exhibits a dynamic relationship in which faculty and students form a partnership in the study, discovery, and dissemination of knowledge. The academic pursuits of a university are paramount and must embrace both a search for truth in relation to fundamental laws and a search for solutions to the problems of society.

Purposes of a University

The Commission believes the purposes of a university are:

1. to provide an advanced level of education which will enhance the development of individual potential as well as provide the skills necessary to contribute to modern society; and to strive to develop in students:
 - a love of learning;
 - a capacity for self directed learning;
 - the skills of creative and critical thought, effective communication, scientific method, esthetic and ethical judgement, adaptability, and broad interdisciplinary perspectives.
2. to search for truth and new understandings.
3. to transmit knowledge in a manner which will foster a creative and innovative learning process, and develop a capacity to think, make judgements and communicate effectively.
4. to preserve and refine existing knowledge.
5. to respond to the needs of society by:
 - utilizing knowledge for the benefit of society at large;
 - providing leadership in the resolution of social issues by serving in the dual role of critic and resource;
 - making university education accessible to all individuals who meet the academic requirements;

- offering continuing education programs and lifelong learning opportunities;
 - providing opportunities for the pursuit of knowledge for personal fulfillment.
6. In all of its activities, a university should be committed to a concept of excellence, and the highest intellectual standards.

The essence of a university has been captured by Warren Bryan Martin, Scholar in Residence at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Washington, D.C.:

“The best rationale for the type of university most needed now is not that it is a center of basic research and sound scholarship, though it is; nor that it is the place where professional skills are taught and careers launched, though those things happen there; nor that it brings general education, socialization and preparation for citizenship to otherwise benighted students, though it does provide these services.

The best rationale for the university is that it is the place where the most substantial issues of society—political, economic, social—receive sustained and disciplined attention, where contending ideologies and methodologies meet, and where prospects are best for the emergence of appropriate responses to these enduring challenges.”

PART SEVEN

APPENDICES

- A. List of Submissions
- B. Sample of Letter requesting Submissions
- C. “University Purposes: Literature Review and Canadian Overview”
- D. “Brief History of The University of Alberta”

Appendix A
List of Submissions

Appendix A: LIST OF SUBMISSIONS

*Submissions received by the Commission On University Purpose:
listed in order of receipt:*

1. Association of Academic Staff: The University of Alberta
2. The Alberta Teachers' Association
3. Dr. H. R. Thornton, Professor Emeritus of Dairy Science, The University of Alberta
4. Dr. H. R. Thornton, Professor Emeritus of Dairy Science, The University of Alberta
5. Dr. E. Silver Keeping
6. Unsigned—1976 graduate of The University of Alberta
7. Unsigned
8. Ms. A. Gannon
9. Dr. T. Nelson, Department of Psychology The University of Alberta
10. Dr. M. Wyman, University Professor; former President of The University of Alberta
11. Dr. F. L. Weichman, Department of Physics, The University of Alberta
12. Ms. M. Basaraba
13. Mr. B. W. Webster
14. Mr. J. Meyer, Vice-President, Calgary Glenmore NDP
15. Dr. W. H. Johns, former President of The University of Alberta
16. Mr. B. M. Harris
17. Dr. A. Stewart, former President of The University of Alberta
18. Dr. G. G. Cloutier, President, Alberta Research Council
19. Ms. E. Gillese
20. Mr. J. H. Parker, Commissioner, Northwest Territories
21. Mr. G. Stromberg, M.L.A., Camrose
22. National Council of Jewish Women, Edmonton
23. Mr. E. E. Borstad, M.L.A, Grande Prairie
24. Mr. J. A. Adair, Minister of Tourism and Small Business
25. Dr. K. D. McFadden, Department of Anatomy, The University of Alberta
26. Prof. P. Hays, Department of Psychiatry, The University of Alberta
27. Dr. G. E. Ball, Chairman, Department of Entomology, The University of Alberta
28. Dr. J. Murie, Department of Zoology, The University of Alberta
29. Dr. G. D. Prideaux, Chairman, Department of Linguistics, The University of Alberta
30. Mr. K. Nixon, Supervisor, Power Plant, The University of Alberta
31. Dr. E. W. Toop, Department of Plant Science, The University of Alberta
32. Dr. A. N. Kamal, Chairman, Department of Physics, The University of Alberta
33. Dr. T. L. Powrie, Department of Economics, The University of Alberta
34. Prof. P. Fieldhouse, Faculty of Home Economics, The University of Alberta
35. Prof. R. Kinney, Faculty of Extension, The University of Alberta
36. Faculty of St. Joseph's College, The University of Alberta
37. Dr. M. Mote, Department of Political Science, The University of Alberta
38. Dr. J. King-Farlow, Department of Philosophy, The University of Alberta
39. Prof. P. H. Bouthillier, Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Alberta
40. Dr. M. Makarechian, Department of Animal Science, The University of Alberta
41. Dr. S. Stinson, Faculty of Nursing, The University of Alberta
42. Dr. J. R. Nursall, Department of Zoology, The University of Alberta
43. Dr. D. Nelson, Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta

44. Dr. F. L. Weichman, Department of Physics, The University of Alberta
45. Dr. J. M. Small, Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta
46. Dr. W. R. Kaufman, Department of Zoology, The University of Alberta
47. Dr. J. R. Royce, Department of Theoretical Psychology, The University of Alberta
48. Dr. W. H. Worth, Dean, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta
49. Alberta Association of Registered Nurses
50. The University of Calgary
51. The Students' Union, The University of Alberta
52. Letter from The Hon. James D. Horsman, Minister, Advanced Education & Manpower
53. Dr. N. Wickenden, Department of History, The University of Alberta
54. Dr. G. Marahrens, Department of Germanic Languages, The University of Alberta
55. Prof. J. James, Department of Movement Education, The University of Alberta
56. Dr. L. P. Apedaile, Department of Rural Economy, The University of Alberta
57. Dr. R. Bryce, Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta
58. Dr. P. Monod, Department of Romance Languages, The University of Alberta
Dr. M. Monod, Department of Secondary Education, The University of Alberta
59. Dr. and Mrs. R. C. Cooper, Red Deer
60. Mr. G. H. Dawe, retired school superintendent, Red Deer
61. Dr. R. Huddleston, Psychologist, Red Deer College
62. Rev. D. G. Carlson, retired clergyman, high school teacher, Red Deer
63. Delta Kappa Gamma, Red Deer
64. Dr. G. O. Kelly, Academic Dean, Red Deer College
65. Mrs. B. Parlby, Alix, Alberta
66. Dr. D. H. Meredith, Duffield, Alberta
67. Mr. R. Fausak, Evansburg, Alberta
68. Dr. J. Terauds, Department of Physical Education, The University of Alberta
69. Dr. D. Jackel, Department of English, The University of Alberta
70. Dr. C. R. Sommerville, Department of Genetics, The University of Alberta
71. Mr. P. Butler, Jasper, Alberta
72. The Senate, The University of Lethbridge
73. Alberta Association of Registered Occupational Therapists
74. Association of Professional Engineers, Geologists, & Geophysicists of Alberta
75. Alberta Status of Women Action Committee
76. Dr. H. R. Thornton, Professor Emeritus of Dairy Science, The University of Alberta
77. Dr. F. P. Van de Pitte, Department of Philosophy, The University of Alberta
78. Phi Delta Kappa, Grande Prairie Chapter
79. The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Alberta
80. Dr. H. N. Anderson, President, Grande Prairie Regional College
81. Prof. J. Ogg, Department of Drama, The University of Alberta
82. Dr. D. Prithipaul, Chairman, Department of Religious Studies, The University of Alberta
83. The Canadian Institute of Mining & Metallurgy
84. Dr. F. Kozar, Member of Senate, The University of Alberta
85. Dr. G. S. H. Lock, Dean, Interdisciplinary Studies, The University of Alberta
86. Alberta Medical Association
87. Edmonton Chamber of Commerce
88. The Alberta Pharmaceutical Association

Appendix B
Sample of Letter Requesting Submissions

Appendix B: SAMPLE LETTER REQUESTING SUBMISSION

The University of Alberta Senate, as the link between the University and the public, has established a Commission to inquire into the nature and purpose of universities, and in particular The University of Alberta.

By asking: "What do you believe a university OUGHT to do?" and "What is your perception of what universities today ARE doing?", The Senate hopes to be able to survey changing attitudes and, in turn, assist the University as it re-examines priorities for the 1980s.

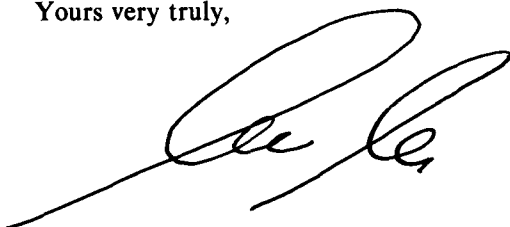
We are asking you as an individual who has considerable interest in universities to please share your ideas on this important topic by sending a written submission (by January, 31, if possible), to:

The Senate Commission on University Purpose
150 Athabasca Hall
The University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2E8

Additional background information is available upon request from the Senate office.

We look forward to hearing from you.

Yours very truly,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Klaus Weiher', with a long horizontal line extending to the left.

Klaus Weiher, Chairman
Submissions and Hearings Committee
Commission on University Purpose

Above is a copy of a letter sent to individuals in September and October 1980. A similar letter was sent to organizations and associations.

Appendix C
“University Purposes: Literature Review and Canadian Overview”

UNIVERSITY PURPOSES:

LITERATURE REVIEW and CANADIAN OVERVIEW

A REPORT PREPARED FOR
THE HISTORY COMMITTEE OF
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA SENATE COMMISSION
ON UNIVERSITY PURPOSE

by

Joanne McNeal

In Collaboration With

H. H. Hodysh

A. G. Konrad

Centre for the Study of Postsecondary Education
The University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T5G 2G5

May 1981

App. C 3

FOREWORD

At the request of the History Committee of the University of Alberta Senate's Commission on University Purpose in February 1981, the Centre for the Study of Postsecondary Education arranged for a graduate student to conduct a literature search on university purposes. Ms. Joanne McNeal performed a wide-range search of the literature, using standard bibliographic tools. Generally, primary sources were limited to major publications.

A secondary source of information about university goals was a compilation of purpose statements of Canadian universities. (See Appendix A for letter to university presidents.) These statements were analyzed for their content and also used as a basis for identifying some future trends for Canadian universities.

The report contains two major sections -- a literature review of university purposes and an overview of Canadian university goal statements. A bibliography of references and appendices containing study materials are also provided.

Although no statement of scholarly completeness is in order, it should be emphasized that Joanne McNeal worked under severe limitations of time. This project was completed by a full-time graduate student under the provisions of a student assistantship during one academic term. Ms. McNeal conferred with Drs. H. H. Hodysh and A. G. Konrad in conducting this project, and Mrs. Doreen Brooks of the Centre typed the final manuscript.

A. G. Konrad
May 15, 1981

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- APPENDIX C: A SAMPLE OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITY PURPOSE STATEMENTS**
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Canadian universities perform a primary role in the social, political and economic life of society. Bastions of knowledge and culture, they both transmit learning and develop new understandings of today's world. Their mission is comprehensive, and their purposes are significant in the life of each province and the nation.

Institutional purposes provide a sense of direction to present activities and future developments. They serve both in evaluative reviews as well as in planning activities. An institution may shift its resources from one program to another following a review of institutional purposes; new activities may emerge as a result of goal clarification. Mission and purpose statements provide an ideology that can serve as a basis for internal cooperation and external understanding and support. Institutions benefit from a precise articulation of purpose. A review of the literature on university purposes and an overview of Canadian university goal statements could be helpful to The University of Alberta in its search for greater clarity of purpose.

In conducting the literature search and in compiling statements of university purposes, it was discovered that a variety of similar terms was used: mission, purposes, roles, goals, objectives, aims, priorities, functions, etc. Although some of these terms appeared to be used interchangeably, a distinction between broad official statements and specific operational ends was observed. A definition provided by the New York Regents (1971:2) was helpful in maintaining this distinction:

The purposes of higher education presented herein express the enduring aspirations of society and provide the departure points for the goals. The goals state desirable conditions that are sought. They are couched in broad, qualitative terms, identifying functional areas of interest. It is recognized that goals may be only partially attainable; that they exceed our society's ability to reach them; and that, at any given time, they may have to be limited or deferred.

Objectives are specific ends to be achieved in the functional area of the goal which each is designed to support.

In this report, the distinction drawn by the New York Regents will be followed. Mission and purposes will be used interchangeably, as will roles and goals, and these all will be reserved for use in reference to the overall, comprehensive design or intentions of a university. This project did not concern itself with the literature or statements concerning operational objectives, aims, priorities or functions. These latter terms were perceived to focus upon actions and activities an institution would undertake in pursuit of its comprehensive intentions, and these were clearly beyond the scope of this project.

That today's universities are rooted in the ancient past became quite evident through the literature review, but also, so was evidence provided that the dynamic interactions with society have resulted in role changes. Universities are complex organizations, serving society in multiple roles.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND UNIVERSITY PURPOSES

THE ROOTS OF THE UNIVERSITY

It might be argued that the roots of the university were established in Ancient Greece. Among the figures of this early period who contributed to the idea of higher education were Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Their concern with systematic mental training and their emphasis on abstract thought and the dialectic helped to set the stage for the development of higher education in succeeding centuries.

Plato, following in the footsteps of his teacher Socrates, conceived the idea of establishing a school, the Academy, where the discourses on justice and virtue could be taught. The Academy, according to Collier (1961, Vol.1:42), was part of a typical Athenian Gymnasia, with outside track facilities for games and competitions, a palaestra and indoor court for athletic exercises, showers and baths. Around the central court were porticoes containing lecture rooms for teachers of economics, rhetoric, philosophy, science, literature, music and art. Plato later bought a home and garden nearby and formally organized his school there, complete with museum. Thereafter, Plato devoted himself to advanced oral teaching and undertook intricate investigations with his students, until his death in 347 B.C. Plato's Academy had an almost uninterrupted history for eight-hundred years until it and other schools of philosophy were closed in 529 A.D. by an edict of Justinian I, ruler of the Eastern Roman Empire.

Aristotle became a student in Plato's Academy in the year 367 B.C. and remained there for twenty years until Plato's death, leaving when he did not agree with the successor named to replace Plato. Aristotle felt that his thinking was moving in a different direction from that of the academics that succeeded Plato at the Academy, so he founded his own school, the Lyceum, in another part of Athens.

Like the Academy, the Lyceum had two main functions, those of teaching and research. As the tutor of Alexander, Aristotle had already been obliged to be something of a schoolmaster, and in the Lyceum he offered popular, as well as specialist, courses. But if in its educational role the Lyceum rivalled but did not outshine the Academy, as a centre of research it far outstripped any earlier institution. Indeed in the whole of antiquity only the Museum at Alexandria was to surpass it....The Lyceum was, or came to be, equipped with a number of important instruments of research, a library, maps, a collection of anatomical diagrams, and perhaps also a collection of biological specimens. And even more important than the material equipment which Aristotle and the successive heads of the school collected was the presence of a number of like-minded friends and pupils who could share in the work of research. The Lyceum concentrated together under a common leadership a body of individuals who were to carry out more extensive investigations over a wide range of scientific, historical and social subjects than had ever been imagined, let alone attempted before (Lloyd, 1977:99-100).

There was little information on the young men who were students at these first schools of philosophy, but it can be assumed that they came from the elite social classes who had few financial concerns. It was interesting to note the close association between these great thinkers and philosophers, and the political leaders of their time. At one time or another, these educators brought direct influence on the events and decision-makers of the day, and the “freedom to think” was granted to friends of the monarch in power.

Another development bearing on the idea of the university was the formation of “collegia” or guilds, which under Roman rule spread throughout the Mediterranean world. The guilds were organized to promote the common interests of their members, and served social and religious as well as economic purposes. Their primary interest was to promote businesses, either merchant or crafts, and their interest in education was limited to the governance and regulation of the apprenticeship of young men.

After the fall of the Roman Empire, the preservation of “higher learning” was left to the church. Schools were attached to monasteries, especially after the Benedictine Order was founded in the sixth century A.D. Members of the Order copied manuscripts of Scripture, and later other works of Greek and Roman literature, thereby preserving the classics of these languages. In order to educate young candidates in the Order, schools were established, both elementary and higher, which were open to outsiders who wished to attend for a short period of time. Later cathedral schools were developed for secular students. Rashdall (1936, Vol.1:44) viewed these schools as the forerunner of the universities:

It was the cathedral school in which Abelard had taught -- the Cathedral School of Paris -- which eventually developed into the earliest and greatest university of northern Europe. Abelard, though not in any strict sense the founder, was at least the intellectual progenitor of the University of Paris.

The abbeys became the centres of arts and letters and a number of the early but great universities, including Paris and Bologna, found their origins in the monastery and cathedral schools.

MEDIEVAL UNIVERSITIES

What we now call universities were identified at first as the “studium generale,” indicating that students were admitted from all countries to pursue higher learning with a plurality of masters. Rashdall (1936, Vol.1:17) identified Paris and Bologna as two archetypal or original universities: “Paris supplied the model for the universities of masters, Bologna for the universities of students.” Both arose about the same time during the last thirty years of the twelfth century, as an outgrowth of the Renaissance. In Italy, this Renaissance was expressed in the revival and study of Roman law, started at Bologna; in France it expressed itself in dialectical and theological speculation which found its home in Paris.

Bologna and Paris as Archetypes. The Italian universities were modeled on the *studium generale* at Bologna. The curriculum placed importance on legal studies, with medicine taught secondarily, and arts given lesser importance. Theology was separate at first, but later was integrated into the curriculum.

Bologna was a university of students, especially of foreign students. Students selected, paid and controlled the masters and their teaching, although the masters always maintained the right of granting degrees. Of course, great variations existed in the distribution of academic power. Rashdall (1936, Vol.2:60) maintained that power shifted with the source of revenue for university support:

The autonomy of the students was originally founded upon the power of the purse. When that power passed to the state, the real control of the *studium* passed with it. The rector, elected by the students from their own body, is still the superior of the professors; but the professors are now more and more relieved from their humiliating dependence on the students by the subjection of both to the state authorities.

.....

... In the earliest days of Bologna the schools were private rooms hired by the professors and paid for by a *collecta* from his students. For congregations or great public functions a convent or church was borrowed. As the expenses of the *studium* came to be more and more transferred from the students to the state, the rent came to be paid by the city governments; but still the buildings were as a rule merely hired (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.2:61).

The Italian universities had a municipal character as they were started and maintained by cities, as an outgrowth of civic life. It was not until the fifteenth century that the cities began to build new, or donate old, buildings for the universities to use. Although the Italian universities were all founded by Papal Bull, they did not maintain their ecclesiastical ties, and control of them was turned over to the state.

The origin of the University of Paris may go back as far as 780 to the establishment of a monastic school at Paris by Charlemagne. However, its actual status as a university is tied to the fame of the theologian, Peter Abelard, who taught at the Cathedral School of Notre Dame. The guild of teachers and students that began as the overflow population from the Cathedral School at Notre Dame became the University of Paris sometime between 1150-1175, shortly after Abelard's death. Collier (1961, Vol.15:77) described these beginnings:

When Philip II of France granted the evolving university a charter in 1200, four faculties were active: arts, theology, law, and medicine. The last three were known as 'superior' because they offered instruction in advanced courses, but the arts faculty was the largest....

The students were apprentice masters or apprentice professors studying to be admitted to the master's guild, and as apprentices they were required to become proficient by demonstration teaching.

In Paris, the university was best understood as a community of masters.

Other European Universities. Generally, the French universities evolved from cathedral schools (Rashdall, 1936, Vol. 2: 207-210). They were first governed by masters or doctors. However, the students organized into "nations" according to their origin, and as the nations got stronger the students gained more power in the university governance, eventually electing the rector. As such, then, they more closely resembled the Bologna model of a university of students rather than their closer Paris model of a university of masters. The bishop held the most powerful position in the French universities and had much more authority than the bishops at the original University of Paris, while the cities had much less authority than at Bologna. The professoriate was co-opted in a system of endowed collegia.

Law studies were the most prominent, especially at Angiers and Orleans, who had no other faculty. Only Montpellier specialized chiefly in medicine. Some of the universities had en

dowed colleges for poor students, and in less prosperous times, these students were kept alive by these colleges. One consequence of the dominance of law, was the unimportance of arts until the separate colleges of arts began to be formed to fill the need.

The Spanish universities were closely tied to the crown, and in some cases the chancellor was a royal nominee (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.2:64-65). Their internal constitution and governance were modeled on Bologna, but they were also connected with the cathedral or other churches. In less ecclesiastical universities, the cities took some part in the erection and government of the universities. The chief endowments came from church sources bestowed on universities by royal authority, or by different kinds of taxes on church properties.

The German universities were modeled after the University of Paris, although two of the earliest had a mixed type of constitution (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.2:280-285). These had a student dominated government for the jurists, or a government in which students and masters shared in electing the rector. Later, this academic power was held by the masters alone. Originally the "nations" of students were organized just in the faculty of arts where they alone elected the rector. But later the rector came from any of the faculties.

A big difference between Paris and the German universities was that from the beginning, the teachers in the German universities were endowed. Thus, they had a permanent professoriate who quickly gathered to themselves through the formulation of councils, the largest academic powers. Also, in the German universities, the colleges were more important than at Paris, and were designed to provide the universities with teachers. In fact, the colleges became almost identical to the faculties.

A university was founded in Cracow in 1394 by charter of Casimir the Great, King of Poland, and the following year by a Bull of Urban V. Rashdall (1936, Vol.2:290) maintained that Cracow was a student university at first:

This constitution is entirely of the Bologna type, and the fullest student-rights are conferred. Both rector and professors are to be elected by the students, and a master is ineligible to the rectorship. The rector is accorded a full and exclusive civil jurisdiction over students....Salaries were assigned to masters of law, 'physic', and arts, and charged upon the revenue arising from the salt-tax of a certain district.

After some extended political problems, a new charter was issued in 1401 and the university was reopened. However, in its new form it contained both a college of jurists and a college of arts, but both were for masters. Salaries were supplied by expropriation of ecclesiastical dignities, canonries, and other benefices.

For many years, Scotland did not feel the need of its own university as there was a Scots College established at the University of Paris (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.2:300-310). But during a war with England, it became unsafe for students to travel to Paris, and about the same time, foreign students were banned from that university. So the first Scottish university was established at St. Andrews. Many students did their beginning studies at home at the University of St. Andrews, and then finished their arts or advanced studies abroad. The University of St. Andrews had faculties of theology and canon law, and medicine was added in the fifteenth century. From the graduation lists, it could be seen that this university exerted much influence on the clerics of the Catholic Church.

Another Scottish university at Glasgow was begun in 1451 and was closely connected to the cathedral, although without endowments until Queen Mary in 1563 granted "the place of the Blackfriars and certain of their rents" and other property to the university.

Upon this new foundation, within the medieval scheme, the modern University of Glasgow was built. The beginnings of revival, to which the city made its contribution, had a similarity, in respect of this municipal interest, to the contemporary movement which brought about in 1583 the College of Edinburgh. Both places benefited from the possessions of the old church: both were supported by burgess enthusiasm for the advancement of the new; while the growth in Edinburgh was from the initial status of a town's college, the College of Glasgow preserved for fuller realization the dignity, the traditions, and the constitution of a university conferred by its founders (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.2:318).

A university at Aberdeen was founded by Royal Charter and Papal Bull in 1497 and for several years was scantily endowed. In 1505 a new college was established, now King's College, to provide teachers in all faculties. These new beginnings were described by Rashdall (1936, Vol.2:319-320).

A comparison of the early history of those universities which started with sufficient endowments with the fate of those attempts at university-founding which were not thus supported supplies ample illustration of the absolute necessity -- at ordinary times and under ordinary circumstances -- of endowment or some other extraneous support for the maintenance of higher education. To this day Aberdeen is kept alive and flourishing, in spite of the competition of the great city universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow, by the number and wealth of its bursaries.

Overall, the Scottish universities were very different from their English counterparts as well as from Paris. Teachers in the Scottish system were usually both college and university teachers -- the two bodies were almost fused into one. Whereas the Oxford tutorial system had a large component of college teachers and almost no university teachers, lectures were almost non-existent. One other distinguishing feature of the Scottish universities was that most of the students were in the arts faculty.

Oxford was founded in 1167 and is thought of by many as one of the greatest universities of the world, not only in medieval times, but today. It was also thought that Paris influenced Oxford somewhat in its formative year (Rashdall, 1936, Vol.3).

Students were housed in groups, like academic households, which banded together to their common benefit in numerous ways. Later these "household groupings" were endowed and compounds or buildings were built for their purpose and became the colleges. However, the colleges were not as important in the medieval days as they are today. At that time, only a small portion of the students were able to benefit from their facilities.

By 1234 the graduates of Oxford began to assume important positions in the church, which gave Oxford wide influence. The dominant faculty of the university was arts, the students of which were divided into nations and even the "superior" faculties had no deans. In fact, the Faculty of Arts became so powerful that in 1250 a statute was passed that prevented graduation in theology of men who had not previously been Masters of Arts.

During the Renaissance, scholasticism declined, and was banned by royal injunction in 1535, some say as a result of arguments over the writings of John Wycliffe. During the Reformation, Oxford University was reincorporated by an Act of Elizabeth in 1571. Since then the faculty has controlled the university; the central university body is merely advisory, and each college is autonomous.

The university at Cambridge came into existence around 1200. By 1226 its chancellor had been recognized by both king and pope, and in 1318 the university was officially founded by Papal Bull. The autonomy of the university was described by Collier (1961, Vol.4:222):

Cambridge, like all British universities, is a corporate, autonomous institution, controlled by a voluntary society, having its own government, regulating its own finances, and exercising the right to appoint its own staff and to control all university affairs. In no sense is Cambridge a national or state university. It is true that Cambridge is financially aided by local governing authorities and by the national treasury, but such aid does not infringe upon the autonomy of the institution. The governing bodies of Cambridge have always been the resident bodies (colleges); in other words, the faculty controls the entire life of the university. Moreover, each college within the university is autonomous.

Originally the university emphasized philosophy, science, ancient and modern languages, and mathematics. Later, engineering, agriculture, medicine and law were included. Each college had its specialty. Many scientific laboratories and several museums were attached to the university; two theological seminaries were included as well. The students learned in a tutorial manner, as at Oxford, and even today only number around 5000.

Medieval Influences. By 1500 there were seventy universities in Europe. They were centres of “pure scholarship and humanistic study,” by which is usually meant that they were concerned with what is now called the “liberal arts” and the higher professions. Ross (1976:7) reviewed these developments:

The early universities were indeed vocationally oriented, created to provide leaders for state and the church and practitioners in law and medicine. But as the institutions evolved, marked differences appeared. The Italian universities tended to emphasize the practical: the professions of law, medicine, theology, and administration; whereas Paris, Oxford, and Cambridge were soon dominated by doctors of theology who taught what became known as the seven liberal arts: grammar, dialectic, rhetoric, geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, and music. It is this latter form and tradition which took root in England and later spread to the United States and Canada.

... within the boundaries of knowledge and imagination feasible in that day, the university was a place of adventure. Unorthodox topics, ideas, theories were investigated and discussed. The whole world of knowledge as it was then known was to be explored -- no facet of it was to be forbidden.

The term, “universitas,” was first used to describe the whole body of masters and students collected together in the *studium generale*, but by the end of the Medieval period, these terms were synonymous.

The structure and many of the practices adopted by universities were first drawn from the established institutions of the day -- the church, the monastery, and the guild. From the church, the universities took the concept of multi-national organization; the administrative hierarchy of chancellor, rector, and deans; rituals like convocation; and colorful dress in academic gowns. From the monastery, came the idea of separateness; and a self-governing community with its own rules and norms. From the guild came the concept of group support and loyalty. A further summary of the evolution of the medieval university was provided by Ross (1976:13-14):

The merging of these ideas gave the university its distinctive character and structure: a self-governing community with an elected hierarchy, separated from the world of commerce, involved in a mission to learn and to teach at an advanced level, using mysterious rituals and dress to dramatize its uniqueness, and requiring from its members deep loyalty to and enduring support for each other and the university. The conception of what a university is, or should be, is deeply rooted in academic ideology and has been stoutly defended by scholars in the centuries that have followed.

What is important to recognize is that this ideology and these practices, however often they were ignored, distorted, or abused in medieval times or in the centuries that followed, constituted a model of what a university should be. Like...any statement of faith, it motivated men to work toward the ideal; it disturbed their conscience when it was not achieved; and it became part of the university mythology, sacred in the lives of traditional scholars.

UNIVERSITIES FROM 1500 TO 1850: SOME OBSERVATIONS

The Renaissance was at its peak in 1500 and the Reformation and the period of French Enlightenment followed soon afterward. Society was alive and vital, it was a time of discovery, both physical, scientific, and artistic. Scientists such as Galileo and Newton; inventions such as the printing press, microscope, telescope and thermometer; writers like Milton, Voltaire, Shakespeare, Moliere, and Descartes; composers such as Bach, Handel, and Mozart; and numerous others, point to the fact that these centuries were not dull, either intellectually or culturally for those sensitive to these developments. Universities, according to Ross (1976:15-16), did not seem to be among the sensitive:

If the universities had been responsive to the social and intellectual movements of the day, they would have been centers of great vitality with imaginative teachers working on the frontiers of knowledge. Instead they were encapsulated by narrow religious dogma and antiquated methods of teaching. They were not for the intellectually brave and adventuresome.

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The fact was that most of the creative work in these centuries was carried on outside academic walls -- indeed much of it was subject to ridicule and scorn by those in the universities. It would be no exaggeration to say that most of the greatest works in literature, philosophy, science, medicine, law, and music during the period 1500-1850 were produced outside the university, although...some of the creators of these works were university graduates and perhaps received early stimulation or inspiration there.

In England, Oxford and Cambridge were the only universities until the University of London was opened in 1828 and Durham University in 1837. But neither had much real status before 1850. Oxford and Cambridge were criticized for being too narrow in scope, for catering to aristocrats, and for producing clergy whose major expertise was Latin and Greek rather than theology. As a result, there were movements to establish private academies to teach different curricula, and the Royal Society was formed in 1662, becoming in effect an institute of advanced study.

The four Scottish universities, which were started by ecclesiastical authorities, soon shared

their governance with laymen. The new influence of the laymen brought these universities to broader and more practical curricula than those in England.

In Canada, in 1850, the country was little more than a sparsely populated series of colonies in a frontier land. However, there were ten universities in these British colonies. In Quebec, a series of "colleges classiques" taught the classics in French, and advanced the Catholic faith. The first of these opened in 1636 teaching Latin, and later it became the Grande Seminaire de Quebec. The Catholic colleges in Canada followed the tradition of the University of Paris after 1500. Ross (1976:20-21) reviewed these influences on Canadian universities:

Just as the influence of Paris was present in Roman Catholic Colleges, English and Scottish influences were present in the protestant colleges. The early King's colleges (in Windsor, Fredericton, and Toronto) were organized by the efforts of the Church of England, which aspired to have these colleges develop on the Oxford-Cambridge model. Others (such as Dalhousie, Queen's and McGill) were influenced by the Scottish universities...All of this would seem to make for a varied, multipatterned university picture in Canada, but while there were some differences in organization and curriculum, the dominant picture was of a small, rigid, poorly equipped, religion-controlled college whose teachers were clergymen and whose curriculum was based on a study of Latin and the classics.

A New Brunswick commission on universities in 1854 recommended that universities should teach not only the traditional curriculum, but should provide instruction in agricultural, mechanical, manufacturing, and commercial areas of use in their own province, as well as science and languages. This report marked the beginning of a less rigid model, and encouraged Canadian universities to respond more broadly to social needs.

In the United States, prior to Independence in 1776, there were nine colleges in the colonies. (Harvard was the first, established in 1636.) Most were small denominational institutions training men for the ministry. The College and Academy of Philadelphia, however, was secular, founded in part by Benjamin Franklin, and later it became the first college to include a medical department in North America.

By the time of the civil war, almost 800 more colleges were formed, but only 180 of those survived to the twentieth century. Most of these colleges were church-oriented, and even the seven state universities established before 1850 were influenced by religious groups.

The typical college in the United States during this period was dominated by the religious establishment, in spite of the influence of great statesmen like Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson. A clergyman was usually president, their teachers were seldom scholars, and there were few specialized subjects. Basically, these colleges followed the English tradition of recitations of Greek and Latin classics.

Most of the universities in England, Canada, and the United States during this period of time were so laden with religious tradition that they could not respond to the new needs of a growing society. Their major emphasis was in undergraduate teaching, designed to "stimulate and nurture the intellectual, moral, and spiritual growth" of each student (Ross, 1976:26). Male students from upper-class families of society dominated the student body.

Gradually, the selection of students in North American colleges widened, and educational opportunities were expanded. Ross (1976:26) identified a significant distinction between university education in England and North America:

While the colleges and universities in England, Canada, and the United States were very much alike, a very important distinction in the role and purpose of education in these three societies was becoming apparent. It can be most clearly seen in the number of colleges and universities in each. In 1850 England had four universities, Canada ten, and the United States eight hundred. The English conceived of the university as a center for training an elite leadership -- primarily for the church. The universities in Canada and the United States may well have drawn their students primarily from the upper classes, but they were obviously for a much wider group and for a much broader purpose than in England. In North America the aim was to provide what was considered to be "intellectual and moral training"; education was to be valued for itself, and it was widely supported as a means of developing sound character -- in short, to instill the virtues that would make the nations strong.

The spirit of the medieval universities was carried on by the German universities. The German national states supported and respected their institutions, and by 1800 they had developed new ideas about the purpose of universities. The focus should be on research and scholarship in all fields; they should foster advanced research in institutes; they should offer students a choice of study program and living quarters; and they should guarantee academic freedom of the professoriate without government interference. According to Ross (1976:27), the German universities distinguished themselves in several ways:

This was a different university: with four faculties (theology, law, medicine, and philosophy) in which there was eagerness to pursue new subjects such as social science; with research institutes stimulating investigation in many fields; with professors free of inhibiting external pressures; and with students following their own inclinations and way of life, required only to pass a major final examination.

Many academics were attracted by this model of a university -- a model that would have a profound effect on university developments in North America.

SELECTED DEVELOPMENTS from 1850 to 1950

These hundred years were years of change -- developments that profoundly affected not only the behavior of man and the societies of all nations in general, but also the universities which each country created.

One of the major developments to effect massive change was the industrial revolution. It affected the development of new cities, industries, and wealth. "Perhaps most important," concluded Ross (1976:33), the industrial revolution "created new social classes -- a vast new middle class of workers and a new elite of scientists and managers -- that profoundly affected social structure and social attitudes."

Among the profound effects of these changes was the move of people from the farm to the city. Urbanization and secularization led to the formation of new attitudes and behavior and along with these new social patterns was a growing interest in rational and scientific explanations for these events.

Novel ideas came from outside the church with men such as Darwin, Marx, Freud, and Einstein. Their concepts and explanations led to new ways of thinking, and different approaches to the development of knowledge and research. The time had come for the university to accept the challenge and meet the needs of a changing society. These innovations took a

different form in each country and each adapted the university concept to its own needs.

In England, Oxford and Cambridge made some changes, but were unable to respond to demands for new programs. In order to meet society's needs, the government founded new universities, more practical and vocational than Oxford or Cambridge. Ross (1976:36-37) described these new institutions:

The civic -- "Redbrick" -- universities flourished. They served a new constituency, with new curricula, and with many first-class teachers and researchers. In some fields they excelled....the Redbrick universities were more responsive to the technological and manpower needs of society, more aware of the progress of research in German universities, and more sensitive to the pragmatic approach of some universities in North America.

Still, only the "established" universities retained the status of quality education, and a clear distinction developed between the graduates of the two types of institutes which lasted until after World War II.

In Canada, although the land expanse was enormous, and the population and resources were small, the ambition to become a great nation abounded. The universities and colleges were struggling to survive, and only those with substantial government grants or large private endowments endured. In 1867, education was made a provincial responsibility, and most provinces were against funding colleges with religious affiliations. McGill and Toronto developed into strong institutions and emerged as leaders in university education, while others were left almost entirely on their own. Provincial universities were established in each of the four western provinces around the turn of the century, but these grew slowly until after World War II.

Two French-speaking universities, Montreal and Laval, received little help from the Quebec government. They not only survived but sustained the French culture in its adaptation to an industrial society.

According to Ross (1976:39-42), the Canadian universities were pragmatic in their curriculum, offering study in many professions and occupations. They emphasized undergraduate education, while advanced studies fell behind. Canada took an eclectic approach to university education, emulating the features of many systems: from the United States, practical programs leading toward business and the professional fields; from Germany, student choice and the concept of academic freedom; and from Britain, honors programs, small classes, and an emphasis upon character formation.

In the United States a number of themes emerged (Kerr, 1963). One was an emphasis on pragmatism and the development of those skills which would contribute to the growth of a young nation. The Morrill Act of 1862 granted support to universities that would provide instruction in agriculture and mechanical fields. This resulted in the development of a series of "land-grant" institutions which combined practical and traditional studies.

The influence of the German universities was evident in the founding of the universities that specialized in advanced study and research. Two such institutions were John Hopkins (1875) and The University of Chicago (1892).

The two World Wars had a numbing effect on universities. Teaching and research budgets were reduced or were diverted with many students serving in the armed services of their countries. In North America, there was a period of growth after World War I during the 1920s, followed by a slowdown in growth during the great depression of the 1930s, and with the

coming of World War II, an even greater decline.

After World War II, in all countries there was a great increase in university enrolments, but nowhere as pronounced as in the United States. With the passage of two Veteran's Educational Assistance Acts in 1943 and 1944, there was an unprecedented capacity for federal expenditure in higher education. The assistance both to veterans and to the colleges and universities was a tremendous boost to strained resources. In many sectors, there was concern that the veteran boom would dwindle. In the United States, Canada and England, enrolment studies were undertaken and projections made for large increases. Administrators expressed concern about enlarged budgets, space for students, and recruiting qualified faculty members. It was a period that led to rapid growth and expansion.

THE GROWTH YEARS: 1950 - 1975

The two and a half decades between 1950 and 1975 were years of unprecedented growth in universities. The demand from students for higher education created incredible challenges for universities. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development reviewed Canada's national policies for education in 1975 (OECD, 1976). The growth trends they reported reflected the situation not just in Canada, but in all of North America and the Western European countries as well.

Canada, in 1956-57, had 78,504 full-time university students. Ten years later, in 1966-67, this number had grown to 352,820. Non-university postsecondary institutions, both colleges and technical institutes, had also increased. In 1956-57 there were 34,045 full-time students in these institutions, which after ten years had grown to 238,500 students.

The number of female students increased more rapidly than male students. In 1961-62 women made up 25.7% of the total student population; by 1972-73, women represented 36.9% of the total student population in Canada. Part-time studies also showed extraordinary growth. In 1966-67 there were only 85,814 part-time students, 16,000 of whom were women. By 1975-76, only nine years later, there were 177,850 part-time students, and 71,000 were women.

With the enlarged number of students in postsecondary programs, the demand for teachers also increased. The number of university teachers increased from 8,755 in 1961-62 to 30,610 in 1975-76. The non-university postsecondary teachers grew from 4,376 in 1961-62, to 18,270 in 1975-76. There were also some qualitative changes in university education; the student/staff ratio in universities dropped from 14.6 to 12.2 in 1975-76.

The rush for teachers had created another problem -- many of the newly employed faculty members had been recruited from outside Canada. In order to address this situation, graduate programs were increased. In 1960 there were 6,500 full-time graduate students in Canada, only 3,800 in part-time study. But by 1974-75 this number had risen to 37,350 full-time graduate students, and 24,000 part-time graduate students.

Because universities were required to adapt quickly to such dramatic growth, the financing of universities also had to change. The report of the OECD (1976:213) summarized these developments:

Provincial and federal governments, which formerly stood aloof from the problems of higher education, have now become almost entirely responsible for its support. Private benefactors have ceased to provide substantial sums towards endowments or operating expenses and students' fees provide only a token portion of tuition costs. Indeed, government support has now become a factor of paramount importance and, whereas

seventy years ago, most governments considered that they could afford to educate only a small minority of their citizens, now they are convinced that they cannot afford not to educate everyone.

One of the tasks of the OECD Examiners was to identify problem areas in Canadian higher education. The following were among the issues they felt were "of major importance for the future development of education in Canada" (OECD, 1976:35-36):

- underprivileged groups, the equality of opportunity
- the status of manual work, the cultural and social implications.
- the handicapped, providing full opportunities
- school-community relations, should the schools be leaders of society?
- local involvement in decision-making, centralized or decentralized?
- defining goals for the future, a necessity for progress.

About the developments in this growth period in Canadian higher education Robin Harris (1976:603) concluded:

By 1960, Canadian Higher education was a well organized system with all the facilities needed to fulfill its national, regional, provincial, and community roles, a statement that could not have been made ten years earlier. During the 1960s it faced a series of crises: dramatic increases of enrolment; the need to expand into new areas of instruction and research; a radical change in the mood of professors and students with respect not only to the details of courses of study and the relative importance of instruction and research, but also to the whole question of how universities should be governed internally; the creation of literally dozens of non-degree granting institutions resulting in the establishment at the post-secondary level of an alternative system to that represented by the universities; and the consequences of the decision of the provincial governments to assume financial responsibility for all forms of post-secondary education. In 1975 it can be said that the Canadian higher education system of 1960 proved to be capable of adjusting itself to this new series of crises.

Many of the reasons for the unprecedented growth of the last quarter of a century have been offered. Niblett (1969:2-3) summarized his views as follows, emphasizing particularly the expectation of productivity:

No comprehensive study exists, so far as I am aware, of the varieties and strengths of the pressures which have combined to make the movement for more higher education so tremendously powerful. But among them are the hopes that it might give us people with the mental equipment to produce the sophisticated technology and instrumentation, so that more comfort, more health, more prosperity were paid as dividends to all of us -- and this prosperity both for home use or . . . for export. Inventiveness, one-upmanship, whether in circumstances of war or peace, political expertise, marketing expertise: these and many others were part of the social payoff it was assumed that higher education would bring. In a measure it has done this. . . . A developed nation surely was one which cultivated its brains and reaped the harvest

In sum, it has been very generally hoped that on the one hand social benefits, and on the other personal benefits, would accrue from the wider

spread of higher education . . . Productivity economic and social; productivity in terms of young men and women who would be more developed and civilized -- these are among the expectations still widely entertained, though maybe not always so consciously expressed.

UNIVERSITY GOALS FOR THE 1980s

From this brief survey of the history of higher education, it was easy to see how dichotomies in the Canadian universities of today have arisen. There were those who said that universities should teach, be relevant, and train workers for jobs. Others held that universities should remain aloof, apart from society, leading society, discovering new facets of the world through research. One university remained an "ivory tower"; another developed downtown in the mainstream of social, political and economic conflict. One remained "closed" to all but the intellectually elite; another was "open" to students of wide-ranging aptitudes, interests and backgrounds.

It has been argued that universities should all be alike, or all different -- each adapting to its own circumstance. The important issue for universities in the 1980s is that they make a conscious choice about their role in society. Universities can ill-afford not to be aware of their past, of present pressures for change, or of alternative future directions.

In concluding this overview of historical developments, a series of purpose statements are offered to illustrate a variety of perspectives on universities. The commonalities in these statements reflect an underlying unity of purpose; divergent views indicate the complexity of the multi-purpose universities of today's world.

Cardinal Newman (1966:7), in the preface to his discourses on "The Idea of a University," delivered in Dublin in 1852 said:

The view taken of a university in these discourses is the following: that it is a place of *teaching* universal *knowledge*. This implies that its object is on the one hand, intellectual, not moral; and on other, that it is the diffusion and extension of knowledge rather than the advancement. If its object were scientific and philosophical discovery, I do not see why a university should have students; if religious training, I do not see how it can be the seat of literature and science.

Such is a university in its *essence*, and independently of its relation to the Church. But, practically speaking, it cannot fulfil its object duly, such as I have described it, without the Church's assistance;...the Church is necessary for its *integrity*. Not that its main characters are changed by this incorporation: it still has the office of intellectual education; but the Church steadies it in the performance of that office.

In 1930, Abraham Flexner wrote a series of Rhodes lectures given in Oxford. In examining the universities of Germany, England, and the United States, he offered this definition (1930:3), and concludes:

I am endeavoring to indicate in the most explicit fashion that a university, like all other human institutions...is not outside, but inside the general social fabric of a given era. It is not something apart, something historic, something that yields as little as possible to forces and influences that are more or less new. It is, on the contrary -- so I shall assume -- an expression of the age, as well as an influence operating upon both present and future.

Some thirty years later, Clark Kerr delivered a series of lectures at Harvard, in which he observed (1963:1-2, 18):

The university of today can perhaps be understood, in part, by comparing it with what it once was -- with the academic cloister of Cardinal Newman, with the research organism of Abraham Flexner. Those are the ideal types from which it has derived, ideal types which still constitute the illusions of some of its inhabitants. The modern...university, however, is not Oxford nor is it Berlin; it is a new type of institution in the world. As a new type of institution, it is not really private and it is not really public; it is neither entirely of the world nor entirely apart from it. It is unique.

.....

A university anywhere can aim no higher than to be as British as possible for the sake of the undergraduates, as German as possible for the sake of the graduates and research personnel, as American as possible for the sake of the public at large -- and as confused as possible for the sake of the preservation of the whole uneasy balance.

In a collection of essays by ten American scholars, Robert Ulrich, Professor of Education at Harvard University, wrote (Frankel, 1959:46-47):

The history of higher education shows that its institutions have alienated themselves from the spirit of their period, or have decayed into glorified trade schools, whenever they have not seen the necessity of a productive interaction between scholarship and human culture. Only when they have been able to combine the advancement of knowledge with the interpretation and guardianship of the deeper meanings of human existence have they been really respected. This synthesis is today more difficult than ever. But one may confidently hope that . . . our colleges and universities are aware of the challenge offered to them in one of the greatest periods of transition in human history.

Claude T. Bissell, (1968:153-155, 157, 159) president of the University of Toronto, outlined the characteristics of a great university in an address given in Vancouver in February 1965:

The first characteristic is that the university is a stronghold of scholarship in the pure theoretical subjects that lie at the basis of any expansion of knowledge. If I were asked to name them I would say they are physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, political science, economics, literature, history, philosophy.

.....

The second characteristic of the great university is that it has graduate and undergraduate divisions that are both strong.

.....

The third characteristic of the great university is that it maintains a balance between its long-range goals and its short-range obligations, or between its responsibility to pure scholarship and its responsibility to the society of which it is a part.

.....

There is a fourth characteristic of the great university that is the hardest to define and the most difficult to realize. That is the maintenance of a

sense of community.

In a seminar of twenty-five distinguished representatives of universities in England, the United States and Canada, W. R. Niblett (1969:25) offered a pluralistic view of the university:

Any place of higher education, as we have seen, must without doubt today be a pluralist institution: inevitably it will have within it numerous parts, most of them dealing with particular areas of knowledge and particular ways of knowing. There is a fruitfulness in such diversity, the chance of challenges that will compel fresh consideration of conflicting evidence and incompatible theories. From the opposition and interplay of minds, if they come close enough to hear each other, new understanding can arise. But if this is to happen, a university must be more than a collection of contiguous departments: and it will only happen if within the plurality there is a deeper unity.

In the Foreword to *The University Today: Its Role and Place in Society* (Ducret and Zaman, 1960:iv), Vittorino Veronese, Director-General of UNESCO identified the enduring qualities of a university:

The university has proved throughout the centuries that it can best serve society by being itself, and by being true to itself. It possesses within itself those capacities which are essential in an age of discovery and change like ours: to train human beings as much as specialists, to respect creative thought unconditionally, to instruct in research methods, to open the mind so that it will not only learn to apply the techniques of today but also to visualize and create the world of tomorrow. Lastly, it strives to rise above temporary upheavals and to build for all time and for all men.

Commenting about the complexity of university goal statements, George Pederson (1979:1), president of Simon Fraser University, stated:

It is also worth commenting that not only are academic goals lacking in clarity, but they are also highly contested. Provided that such goals are left ambiguous and diffuse, people accept them; as soon as efforts are made to specify them in concrete terms which can be operationalized, important differences of opinion become dominant . . . In this sense, the academic goals of any university tend to be a bit like "mom's good old apple pie" -- enough cinnamon to create a sense of spiciness but overridden with ample sugar to satisfy a multiplicity of tastes.

These purpose statements provided an overview of dynamic institutions. Rooted in the ancient past, today's institutions of higher learning demonstrate remarkable strengths to perpetuate longstanding traditions of scholarship and also to respond to the changing demands of a complex environment.

University goals for the 1980s must provide for both continuity and change. Among the enduring dimensions of higher education are issues of equality of access, excellence, program comprehensiveness, meeting social and manpower needs and authority and control. In an era of little or no growth, goals will arise in response to external accountability demands and the need for internal self-renewal. The changing environment of higher education will lead inevitably to the articulation of new goals for universities.

The last chapter provides an overview of current purpose statements of Canadian universities. Together, they form a comprehensive view of Canadian higher education.

Chapter 3

OVERVIEW OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITY GOAL STATEMENTS

This chapter summarizes purpose statements of Canadian universities. It provides an overview of the survey methodology, definitions and analytical procedures, and a summary of major goal orientations. The chapter concludes with an identification of future trends noted by university respondents.

SURVEY METHODOLOGY

In February, 1981, a letter was sent from the Centre for the Study of Postsecondary Education to the 49 Canadian universities, requesting a statement of their role and purpose, as well as a copy of a recent annual report. A similar request for official statements of university purposes was made also to the ten Deputy Ministers of Departments of Education or Advanced Education in each of the provinces (See Appendix A).

Responses were received from 47 of the 49 universities, a return rate of 96 percent. Most governmental departments referred the request to institutional heads and, consequently, government responses were not included in the analysis of survey returns.

A great variety of responses was received, ranging from single-page letters to substantial reports or planning documents. (Appendix B contains a listing of all materials by institution and province.) The Maritime University Commission had recently requested a concise statement of about 1000 words of history, goals, roles, and future direction from each of the Maritime universities. Several institutions in other parts of Canada also had recently studied their goals and had prepared major statements or booklets on the subject. These were all most helpful.

Many universities, however, had no such formal statements. The most succinct statement of purpose received was contained in a single sentence: "to pursue the advancement and dissemination of knowledge" (Nairn, 1981). Several respondents submitted annual reports, long-range planning documents, or recruitment materials. Of these, the annual reports were usually found to contain the least appropriate material, as the material often focused too narrowly upon programs, students and faculty, budgets, physical facilities, and special issues. The planning documents were more useful, but they were lengthier and more difficult to decipher. Sometimes, the planning documents contained a purpose section, reviewing general goal statements. The recruitment documents had questionable value, because they usually portrayed a "sugar-coated" view of the university. All materials were examined carefully for purpose statements and included in the content analysis whenever possible.

DEFINITIONS AND ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

Institutional purposes and goals have been conceptualized in a variety of ways. Etzioni (1964:6) defined an organizational goal as "a desired state of affairs which the organization attempts to realize." According to Steers (1977:19), "goals may represent policy statements concerning how an organization intends to organize and utilize its scarce resources." In both of these definitions, the emphasis clearly rests upon the organization as a unit or collectively,

rather than upon individuals within the organization. Peterson (1972) differentiated between “outcome goals” -- substantive objectives institutions seek to achieve, and “process goals” -- objectives relating to the internal processes of an institution.

The analysis of the purpose statements relied upon a modification of the terms and categories of outcome goals developed for the *Institutional Goal Inventory* by Educational Testing Service (1972). This instrument has been used widely to assess goals of all types of higher education institutions. Although data were not collected with a structured instrument, the goal framework was helpful in categorizing purpose statements.

The documents were examined for statements that answered some or all of the following questions: What are universities for? Why do universities exist? What is their major emphasis -- teaching or research? How do universities relate to society? What is their future direction? Within these five major categories, the following definitional terms were used for content analysis:

Comprehensive Orientation

Intellectual orientation -- development of a positive attitude towards learning and study; familiarity with methods of reasoning, research, and problem solving; the ability to synthesize knowledge from many sources; the capacity for self-directed learning; and a commitment to life-long learning.

Academic development -- acquisition of general and special knowledge; preparation of students for advanced study; maintenance of high intellectual standards.

Vocational preparation -- establishing specific occupational curricula; providing programs geared to emerging career fields; opportunities for retraining or upgrading skills; assistance to students in career planning.

Advanced training -- postgraduate education; developing and maintaining a strong comprehensive graduate school; graduate programs in professional areas; advanced study in special problem areas.

Liberal Education

Humanism/altruism -- respect for diverse cultures; a commitment to work for world peace; consciousness of important moral issues; concern about the welfare of mankind.

Individual personal development -- development of personal goals and a means for achieving them; nurturing self-worth and self-confidence.

Cultural-aesthetic awareness -- appreciation of a variety of art forms; requiring study in the humanities or arts; introduction to non-western art; encouraging students to participate in artistic activities.

Traditional religiousness -- helping students develop a dedication to serving God in everyday life; developing ability to defend a theological position; consideration of a religious vocation; educating students in a particular religious heritage.

Teaching and Research

Teaching role -- the emphasis and priority placed on teaching; how does it relate to research?

Research role -- the emphasis and priority placed on research; how does it relate to teaching?

Public Service

The role of public service in general -- designing new social and environmental programs; committing resources to solve social and environmental problems; training for the disadvantaged; responsiveness to regional and national priorities in planning educational programs.

Local/provincial responsibility -- cultural centre for the local community; providing trained manpower for local or provincial needs; faculty and student participation in the solution of local or area problems.

Equality of opportunity -- ensuring open admissions and a meaningful education for all applicants; offering remedial work in basic skills.

Social criticism and activism -- providing criticism of prevailing values in society; offering ideas for change to defective social institutions; teaching students how to effect change; and involving staff and students in the process of community change.

Programs

Special programs or emphases -- those for which a university confesses a particular commitment, expertise, or fame.

Part-time/adult student programs -- opportunity for, or commitment to, providing programs and degrees especially for part-time or adult students, including life-long learning.

Minorities -- commitment to a particular minority group such as women, handicapped, blind, senior citizens, Native, French, Acadian students.

Non-traditional methods -- commitment to serving students via new modes of teaching and learning, including: distance delivery, correspondence, mobile units, cooperative programs, internships, remote teaching, individualized instruction, interdisciplinary emphasis or immersion study.

Future trends

-- growth patterns or emphases for future growth and development; priorities for survival.

Each university document was examined for evidence of its goal orientation. When a statement of purpose was examined, it was categorized according to its inherent characteristics. No inferences as to emphasis or priority were made unless clearly indicated. It was particularly difficult to identify an institution's goal orientation when secondary documents were used, except in specific areas of programming. Consequently, many of the categories were left blank.

An attempt was made to determine whether teaching or research received higher priority at the institution. If a university statement centered on teaching, but did not mention research at all, then it was presumed that teaching received higher priority. Conversely, if research was highlighted, then it was judged that the greater emphasis was placed upon research. But if research was discussed only in relation to, or in support of, teaching, then teaching was regarded to be more important. If the statement contained no obvious reference to priorities, no entry was made on this matter.

Clearly, the analysis of the purpose statements and related documents was severely limited by the nature of the materials under examination. Although the lack of comparability in these materials was regarded as a major weakness in the overview of purposes, the analysis served as the basis for a tentative summary of major goal orientations in Canadian universities. Indeed, the caution expressed by John Panabecker, chairman of the Board of Governors of McMaster University contained in the *Annual Report* of the University of Calgary (1979:2) serves as a caution to the ensuing discussion of findings; "...universities should become aware of the fact that there is likely a most serious gap between what universities think and say they have been doing, and what they actually have been doing."

MAJOR GOAL ORIENTATIONS

The major goal orientations of Canadian universities were derived from purpose statements and other documentary materials received from these institutions. (A sampling of university purpose statements appears in Appendix C.)

Table 1 summarizes the compilation of goal orientations by percentage of institutions by region and in total. (Table 2 in Appendix D provides a detailed compilation of goal orientations by institution within each region.) These goal orientations represent institutional purposes as inferred from university statements and reports.

General observations. Of all roles, only teaching was mentioned by all 47 universities. Research was referred to by 91 percent of the institutions. It was difficult, however, to determine which of these roles received primary emphasis. Given the limitations in the data, it appeared as though teaching was primary for 36 percent, while research was so identified for only four percent.

Table 1
Goal Orientations of Canadian Universities by Percentage of Institutions by Region and Total

Goal Area	Western (N=11)	Ontario (N=17)	Quebec (N=7)	Maritimes (N=12)	Total (N=47)
<i>Comprehension Orientation</i>					
Intellectual orientation	55	88	100	83	81
Academic development	55	94	100	92	85
Vocational preparation	100	76	100	83	87
Advanced training	64	47	86	58	60
<i>Liberal Education</i>					
Humanism/altruism	27	71	43	75	57
Personal development	55	82	86	75	74
Cultural/aesthetic	45	41	100	83	62
Traditional religiousness	9	29	29	42	28
<i>Teaching/Research</i>					
Teaching	100	100	100	100	100
Teaching Primary	36	24	43	50	36
Research	82	94	86	100	91
Research primary	0	6	14	0	4
<i>Public Service</i>					
General role	100	76	57	100	85
Local community	91	71	100	100	87
Equality of opportunity	36	41	57	33	40
Social criticism	0	59	57	25	36
<i>Programs</i>					
Special Programs	73	76	86	75	77
Part-time/adult	73	47	86	58	62
Minorities	45	12	0	42	26
Non-traditional	91	35	29	0	38

The second strongest characteristic of Canadian universities was in a comprehensive orientation. More than 80 percent of the institutions could be characterized as having an intellectual orientation, an emphasis upon academic development, and a focus on vocational preparation. The high commitment to vocational preparation clearly indicated that universities were preparing students for work. Advanced training was identified as a goal for three-fifths of all institutions.

The emphasis on providing a liberal education seemed to be much lower than that of providing a comprehensive education. Approximately three-fourths of the institutions included individual personal development of students as a goal; three-fifths were concerned with both a commitment to humanism/altruism and cultural/aesthetic understanding. Only 28 percent made reference to traditional religiousness in their purpose statements.

Public Service, in general and to a local or provincial community, was evidenced as a purpose by 85 and 87 percent, respectively. Only approximately 40 percent of the institutions referred to equality of opportunity and social criticism in their statements.

Finally, many institutions noted special programs and programs for part-time and adult students. Only 26 percent mentioned programs or special facilities for minorities. The most commonly named minority was women, followed closely by handicapped persons. Non-traditional programming was included in 38 percent of the institutional statements.

Regional observations. Since the data sources lacked comparability, observations about regional differences among university purposes must be made with caution. Examining percentage variations across the four geographical regions provides an indication of some interesting differences among Canadian universities. Only major deviations from the profile of all universities will be highlighted in this section.

Universities in *western* Canada were generally younger than those in the rest of the country. Until after World War II, and the enrolment boom, one provincial institution served the students of each province. Although several detailed purpose statements were received, many of the documents from universities in western Canada were inadequate for detailed analysis.

Vocational preparation was observed as a purpose statement in the materials received from each of the western universities. Intellectual orientation and academic development, however, received mention less frequently in this region than elsewhere. Similarly, liberal education purposes were espoused less frequently by western universities than elsewhere, except that cultural/aesthetic ends were pursued even less often in Ontario. Traditional religiousness was identified in only nine percent of the statements of western institutions.

All western universities expressed a commitment to a general public service role. None, however, acknowledged social criticism among its purposes. In the program category, both minorities and non-traditional emphasis received higher mention than elsewhere. Indeed, 91 percent of all western universities mentioned some form of non-traditional activities -- day care, mobile clinics, satellite programs, off-campus centres, cooperative and internship programs, etc.

Ontario universities represented over one-third of all institutions in this survey. The goal orientation of Ontario universities closely resembled that of Canadian universities in total.

Ontario statements emphasized intellectual orientation and academic development somewhat more frequently than it was emphasized in the total response group, but vocational preparation and advanced training were mentioned least often. On matters of liberal education, Ontario institutions were quite similar to the rest, except that cultural/aesthetic purposes were

acknowledged less often than elsewhere.

Public service roles were generally regarded about the same as in other parts of Canada; social criticism was mentioned by approximately three-fifths of the Ontario universities, more than anywhere else.

Although the traditions of *Quebec* universities differed somewhat from those of universities in other regions of Canada, their purposes showed marked similarities.* One university, Université de Québec, was organized as a consortium of colleges and a separate set of materials was provided for each of ten campuses. In this analysis, only the statements of the major campus were included for categorization, although Table 2 (Appendix D) contains separate entries for each campus of the consortium.

Quebec universities were strongly characterized by a comprehensive orientation. All institutions included intellectual orientation, academic development and vocational preparation in their purpose statements, and 86 percent emphasized advanced training. Liberal education purposes were evident about as often in Quebec statements as elsewhere, except that all universities in Quebec included cultural/aesthetic goals -- preservation of the French culture.

Research was listed as a university role by 86 percent of the institutions in Quebec, but 14 percent identified it as a primary emphasis.

Evidence for a public service role in Quebec institutions was somewhat mixed. Although all acknowledged a commitment to the local or provincial community, fewer institutions than elsewhere recognized a general public service role. Equality of opportunity was the highest recorded across the regions, and social criticism was equally high in the statements.

Both special programs and part-time and adult programs were mentioned by 86 percent of the institutions, more than elsewhere, but no mention at all was made of minorities.

The most complete set of purpose statements was received from the *Maritime* universities. Although these institutions were similar to universities in other parts of Canada, they distinguished themselves on several dimensions.

Like other universities, many of the Maritime universities had a comprehensive orientation. The liberal education component appeared high among purpose statements; 42 percent of these universities included traditional religiousness in their purposes.

Fifty percent of the Maritime universities considered teaching to be their primary role, more than elsewhere in Canada. At the same time, all included research as a purpose, although none regarded it to be primary. All included both a general public service role and a local or provincial community responsibility. No mention was made of non-traditional programs in the Maritimes.

Summary observations. Several factors helped to explain some of the differences among institutional purpose statements. The first of these was simply time. Older institutions seemed more traditional. In some instances, they had a stronger orientation toward research and advanced training; in other settings, particularly in the Maritimes, they were inclined toward liberal education, possibly in conjunction with historical church ties. The large older institutions had developed strong financial dependence upon the private sector, while the younger institutions relied more heavily upon government funding. Less bound by tradition, the younger universities appeared more innovative than the older ones.

University location also influenced purpose statements. Smaller rural institutions were often

*Special thanks are extended to Beverley Cook who translated and interpreted the francophone documents for this analysis.

residential, and reflected long-standing traditions of higher education in an "ivory tower." Several urban universities, particularly in Ontario, stressed programs in business and economics and claimed major responsibility for social criticism.

A third factor was culture. Each region seemed to have cultural characteristics that differed from the others. The cultural factors were perhaps most pronounced in Quebec and the Maritimes. The absence of clearly defined cultural values, as perhaps in the western provinces, may have accounted in part for their markedly lower commitment to humanism/altruism and traditional religiousness.

Although additional factors have influenced institutional developments, purpose statements seemed to reflect the history, location and culture of each institution and its environment.

FUTURE TRENDS

An examination of university purpose statements is incomplete without an attempt to identify future trends in higher education. What institutional and societal factors impinging upon Canadian universities will effect the kind of pressure that could result in new directions?

The documents reviewed, especially the planning documents, contained references to "crises" in higher education. Some universities identified specific innovative and constructive responses to these problems. In some instances, these new developments could lead to restructuring institutional priorities; in other settings, they could result in the formulation of new institutional purposes.

A listing of some major problems and related responses was developed from the documents. Although the listing may have limited utility, it illustrates the kind of issues and some responses that universities must consider in the 1980s.

Enrolment decline. Population growth has stabilized and absolute numbers of the "traditional" university-age student has declined, at least in most parts of the country.

- Encourage part-time study
- Increase enrolment of mature/adult students
- Expand programs for minorities
- Develop continuing education courses

Inflation and reduced budgets. The economy of society makes service institutions particularly vulnerable. Many institutions are forced to reestablish budgetary priorities to "make ends meet," let alone develop new programs.

- Increase fund-raising activities
- Establish scholarship and other award trusts
- Establish program-based budgeting
- Increase efficiency through energy conservation

Rapidly changing technology. Costs and demands for new expertise and materials soar even higher.

- Long-range planning of acquiring high-priced technology
- Reduce waste and avoid overlap in equipment
- Expand vocational programs
- Increase cooperative programs with business, industry, etc.

Faculty stagnation. Enrolment stabilization and funding crises decrease the mobility among university faculty members. The opportunity to bring new ideas and revitalization to universities through the influx of young scholars is dwindling.

- Promote faculty evaluation and development programs
- Encourage national and international faculty exchange programs

- Increase faculty liaison with business and other agencies
- Develop new employment patterns: half-time, early retirement, secondments, etc.

New pressures for change. Government and society-at-large demand greater responsiveness from today's universities. To some extent, the public has lost its enchantment with universities. How can academic excellence be maintained while services are extended to a wider clientele?

- Maintain high standards, but provide remedial programs
- Deliver programs in more remote areas and by innovative methods
- Promote greater community involvement in universities
- Expand research and service activities
- Re-evaluate priorities at least every five years, . . . seeking greater flexibility and innovativeness.

Along with an indication of issues and alternative responses, the documents also portrayed mixed perspectives regarding the process of goal articulation. Some spokesmen were rather cautious about the activity, others revealed a sense of excitement and enthusiasm. A sampling of these comments follows:

Perhaps the greatest crisis facing many of our universities is the need to play the numbers game in order to survive. Since funding in many jurisdictions is now tied almost exclusively to enrolment, hence to the production of employable individuals...it appears that further moves toward a more job-oriented curriculum are inevitable. Competition for students among universities . . . will become more intense and will result inevitably in either a lowering of entrance and graduation standards, or other financial inducements. In the vicious circle, mediocrity may well be fostered and the strong brought low. Some with little qualms for their integrity, might well survive, while many an honest and struggling institution will likely fade away (Wagner, 1979:2)

. . . we are attempting to buy the time required to adapt our traditions, commitments, and strengths to the problems and prospects of the eighties. Whether we shall succeed will depend not only on our own efforts, but on the tangible encouragement we receive from the public at large, public agencies such as OCUA and, above all, the Ministry and the Government (Carleton University, 1980:11).

. . . for the first time in two hundred years since the Industrial Revolution, we could well be approaching the day when society will need to gear-down its life-style rather than continuously forging ahead in material terms. To accommodate such a change will require, at the very least, a mature and highly educated population. I suggest, then, that education is more important now than ever before for two reasons: first, to provide the knowledge that is so critically important to enable us to improve our economic performance in the face of diminishing resources; and second, to provide us with the capacity to live what I expect will be a very different style of life (Macdonald, 1981:1,2).

That the university of Calgary, while recognizing its complex relationship with and responsibilities to the society which supports its efforts, reaffirm the concepts of intellectual and pedagogical autonomy and the mandate

of universities as broadly educational, rather than narrow vocational training institutions (University Program Review Committee, 1980:295).

These comments provide an indication of major concerns and perspectives on future trends in Canadian universities. Some trends and directions appeared to emerge when university documents were examined in light of the problems of the 1980s. These observations may illuminate the context in which Canadian universities will establish their priorities in this decade.

CONCLUSION

Institutional purposes give direction and meaning to programs and activities. Canadian universities have espoused purposes that link them with higher education of various times and places. Indeed, the review of the literature on university purposes clearly indicated that Canadian universities belong in the mainstream of western university traditions.

The overview of Canadian university purpose statements provided evidence of the comprehensiveness of these institutions. Although regional variations were observed, the similarities in university purposes were quite evident. Furthermore, the issues and alternatives considered by a university in one setting might be very similar to those in another setting.

Institutional development could be fostered through a re-examination of university purposes. The formulation of goal priorities could strengthen Canadian universities in the 1980s. New vitality could accompany a dynamic search for renewal through goal articulation activities.

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(Additional appendix material available in Senate office.)

APPENDIX D

BRIEF HISTORY

OF

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Prepared by Maureen Riddell
for the History Committee
Commission on University Purpose

June 1980

The roots of the modern university date back to the Middle Ages, when groups of students and professors banded together in autonomous, self-centred, intellectual communities to pursue their common interests. Prior to the twelfth century, higher education had been confined primarily to monasteries and cathedral schools where religious training was provided. However, with the revival of learning, which swept through Europe during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, support grew for scholarly institutions dedicated to disseminating the newly discovered knowledge of antiquity. The works of such thinkers as Aristotle, Euclid, Ptolemy and the ancient Greek physicians were brought to light after centuries in darkness, and increasing attention was devoted to the precepts of Roman Law, which had largely disappeared during previous years.

Their interest awakened by these freshly unearthed teachings, students from all over Europe gravitated to common centres of learning to study under the tutelage of the most qualified teachers of the day. To facilitate the search for and preservation of the new learning, twelfth century masters and students established corporate bodies along the lines of contemporary guilds, in which members of a profession or trade united to achieve common goals. The new associations of scholars were referred to as “universities”, the term used at that time to describe medieval corporate bodies or guilds in general.

The motive for creating a guild-like organization among students was, in the case of early Italian universities, to protect their interests against those of neighboring townspeople and the professors whom they hired to teach them. As a cohesive united body, for instance, the university could more effectively advance the demands of students for reasonable rents and food prices within a town than could individual students. As the ultimate weapon in its campaign for specific rights and privileges, the university would threaten to move out, lock, stock and barrel, from a town which refused to accede to its demands.

Students used the mechanism of the university successfully to obtain papal privileges of autonomy in civil, and sometimes even criminal, matters during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The university was also employed as an agency through which to negotiate teaching contracts with the professors, or masters.

The masters, in response to the united efforts of students, formed their own guilds which they called “colleges”. The college established and enforced qualifications for certificates as masters. Candidates who successfully passed the examinations to become masters were awarded special licences as proof of their competency. These licences served as the forerunners of later academic degrees.

A slightly different foundation for university organization emerged in Northern European universities than in the early Italian institutions during the twelfth century. The earliest northern university, at Paris, originated as a union of masters, rather than of students. The curriculum at Paris also differed from that of southern universities such as Bologna in that Paris emphasized theology and philosophy, while Bologna concentrated on civil law and medicine. Paris served as the model for universities established subsequently in England, Germany, and Northern France, while the example of Bologna was imitated throughout Italy, Spain and Southern France. The number of universities throughout Europe grew steadily after the twelfth century. While, in 1300, there were five such institutions, this number had increased to twenty two by 1400, and seventy eight by 1500.

The status and role of universities in society was altered after the Middle Ages in response to broader economic and political changes in Europe. From the fourteenth to the eighteenth centuries, the universities were associated primarily with training for the professions of the ministry, medicine, and law. The task of discovering and spreading innovative ideas and

information was increasingly appropriated by newly created schools such as academic gymnasias and academies. Learned societies which arose during the seventeenth century provided the institutional framework for important scientific investigations and discoveries during that century. By the eighteenth century, universities throughout Europe had earned reputations as increasingly moribund, uninspiring institutions, divorced from current progressive developments in science and scholarship.

In North America, the foundation of universities followed closely in the wake of settlement. The first American university was Harvard, founded in 1636; in Canada the earliest university was the University of King's College in Windsor, Nova Scotia, established in 1790.

Initially, the universities on the North American continent were modelled largely on their European counterparts. Primarily financed and operated by denominational organizations, these institutions, like those in Europe, were preoccupied with the perpetuation of past knowledge and values rather than with the discovery and application of new ideas and beliefs. Until the early nineteenth century, the aim of the majority of Canadian and American, as well as European, universities was to prepare young men, in mind and manners, for careers in the ministry and learned professions, such as medicine and law.

The last half of the nineteenth century, however, witnessed a dramatic revolution in higher education in North America. A series of reforms in the structure and aims of these institutions resulted in the triumph of the principles of non-denominational, state controlled university education, with an emphasis upon advancement, as much as preservation, of knowledge. Factors responsible for these changes in university outlook and procedures of operation included the influence of German trends of scholarship, the rapid rate of scientific progress, and the impact of growing currents of social and political utilitarianism in North American society during the nineteenth century.

Chiefly from Germany, North American universities adopted the view that they should strive to expand as well as to pass on existing knowledge and beliefs, and that, in the process of promoting new learning, established ideas and opinions should be constantly subjected to the challenge of reason and experiment. On the basis of these concepts, intellectual criticism and scientific research became the watchwords of many North American, as well as European, universities by the latter years of the nineteenth century. Scientific research, a crucial function of German universities, grew to command increasing respect as a legitimate and useful objective of American and Canadian universities as well.

The German notion of state ownership and control of universities also gained growing credence in North America as an efficient and economic alternative to the prevailing system of denominational universities.

State and provincial governments were faced with requests from increasing numbers of financially strapped denominational universities for monetary aid, especially as the costs of equipping these institutions mounted steadily. Increasingly aware of the detrimental impact of competition among a multiplicity of struggling denominational colleges, in terms of duplicating facilities and fomenting sectarian bitterness, governments came to endorse the principles of centralization, secularization and state sponsorship of universities.

The idea of public accountability, whereby the university owed the state its services in solving society's most pressing social and economic problems, found increasing favor, too, in North America during the nineteenth century. In line with the growing acceptance of the values of egalitarian democracy and business-like efficiency in all aspects of public life, the traditional university tendency to isolate itself from its surrounding community gave way to the view that the university was responsible to fulfill the intellectual and practical needs of society.

Not surprisingly, the growth of state universities devoted to secular aims did not go unchallenged by established denominational institutions during the nineteenth century. Many sectarian universities resisted the trend towards non-denominational universities strongly, even to the point of infiltrating the governing boards of public universities as a means of exerting indirect sectarian control over these institutions. The eventual ascendancy of state universities by the early twentieth century was accomplished only at the expense of prolonged and intense social and political struggles in many regions of Canada and the United States.

Where denominational universities had not established a strong foothold by the turn of the twentieth century, such as in regions of western Canada and the United States, politicians in these areas frequently endeavored to prevent secular denominational university conflicts before they could arise. To this end, governments in these frontier communities strove to create strong, influential state universities before denominational institutions could enter and exert their impact.

The University of Alberta

The desire to establish a strong state-controlled non-denominational university was crucial to the formation of a provincial university at an early date in Alberta's history. The first attempts to found a publicly sponsored university to serve Alberta actually predated the official formation of the province in 1905. As early as 1890, when Alberta and Saskatchewan were still united as the Northwest Territories, territorial politicians endeavored to obtain federal government approval for the establishment of a state university in their region. The refusal of the federal administration to endorse a territorial university at this time was considered a setback but not a final deterrent to the efforts of western politicians. In 1903, under the leadership of Premier F. W. Haultain, the Northwest Territories legislature successfully passed a bill establishing the framework for a territorial state university. No concrete action was taken towards the actual erection of this university before the transformation of responsibility for education to the newly formed provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta in 1905. However, the impact of the 1903 state university legislation did not vanish with the assumption of provincial authority over education in 1905. Rather, in both Saskatchewan and Alberta, a nucleus of provincial political and educational leaders strove to establish provincial legislation modelled on the former Northwest Territories University Act.

The passage of legislation to facilitate a non-denominational university was an urgent priority of Alberta's first Premier, A. C. Rutherford. During the province's first legislative session in early 1906, Rutherford secured the passage of a bill providing for the foundation of a secular, state financed university when conditions in the province should warrant. This university was to be governed by a Senate consisting of fifteen members, ten appointed by the provincial government and five elected by the university's Convocation. The first Convocation was to comprise individuals possessing recognized degrees from British universities and desiring membership in this body. The proposed domination of the Senate by government appointees was indicative of Premier Rutherford's intention to preserve an influential voice in the administration of the university.

Following the passage of the University Act in 1906, the decision as to when conditions in Alberta would justify the actual establishment of a university devolved upon the Premier and his cabinet. Public opinion at this time was divided on the issue of when a university was necessary. While a number of individuals and groups advocated the immediate construction of a university, substantial numbers of Albertans favored postponement of such action pending government action on such other matters as primary and vocational educational development, and industrial growth in the province.

Rutherford's personal predilection towards establishing a state university within several years of the province's formation was strengthened during 1906 by the influence of an eastern educator, Henry Marshall Tory. Tory attempted to persuade the Premier of the merits of immediate measures to expand higher education in Alberta. So convinced did Rutherford become of the viability of a provincial university that, by the end of 1906, he had initiated steps to establish such an institution.

By April, 1907, the provincial cabinet had approved the location of the university in Strathcona, across the river from Edmonton. This decision was to earn Rutherford the prolonged and harsh enmity of a number of Calgarians who had been vying for the placement of the new institution in their hometown. Then, in September, 1907, Rutherford confirmed the appointment of Henry Marshall Tory, the man whom he had consulted regarding the development of higher education in the province, as the first University of Alberta President.

Tory's background made him eminently suitable for the task of pioneering in the evolution of higher education in Alberta. Having received his early schooling in Nova Scotia and his university education at McGill, Tory abandoned his initial pretensions to the Methodist ministry in favor of a career as a scholar, specializing in mathematics and physics. In addition to his noted talents as a teacher and researcher, Tory brought to the University extensive administrative experience gained as an assistant to McGill's Dean of Arts and as a representative of McGill in negotiations for affiliation with outside universities and colleges.

During his two decades as university president, Tory became the dominant force in moulding the development of The University of Alberta. He endeavored, for instance, to incorporate his personal ideals regarding educational philosophy and administration into the policies and programs of The University of Alberta. A major objective of his was to make the university a central agent in both the material and spiritual growth of all Albertans. He proposed that the university play a leading role in strengthening society's moral and cultural fabric; in conjunction with this aim, he recommended that, through a comprehensive program of scientific research, the university undertake to solve society's social and economic problems. As his term at The University of Alberta progressed, Tory devoted increasing attention to the goal of furthering research at the University. It was thus in the foundation of research facilities and programs that he left his imprint most firmly on the growth of the University.

Under Tory's leadership, The University of Alberta devoted itself initially to the establishment of what were at that time considered the four basic academic divisions of a university: the Faculties of Arts and Science, Applied Science, Medicine, and Law. Beginning with the opening of the Arts and Science Faculty in 1908, the university administration continued, as soon as funds permitted, to form the Applied Science Faculty in 1911, and the Faculties of Medicine and Law in 1912.

Another area of study which Tory and his administrative colleagues attempted to integrate into the university, beginning in 1909, was agriculture. The efforts of Tory and the University Senate in this regard were frustrated for a number of years, however, by their inability to persuade the government of the advantages of the immediate formation of an agricultural faculty. Complicating this issue was the development of a strenuous conflict between advocates, like Tory, of an agricultural faculty incorporated into the main university campus and proponents of a separate independent agricultural college. Finally, after a lengthy debate over this question, and following the establishment of three agricultural vocational schools in Alberta, the provincial government agreed, in 1915, to the organization of an agricultural faculty in accordance with the recommendations of the university administration.

In 1912, the University of Alberta became the first university in Canada to establish a Department of Extension as an integral part of its overall academic and administrative

structure. A special budget was allocated to sustain the initial activities of the Department of Extension in conducting lectures and disseminating information and advice requested by Albertans. As part of Tory's general scheme to make the university a central part of the daily lives of all Albertans, the Extension Department developed programs designed to serve the intellectual, as well as the practical needs of all Albertans. The Department grew rapidly to encompass a travelling library, an organized debating program, and a series of lectures and short courses on a wide variety of topics. From the outset public response to the Extension programs was enthusiastic. University authorities were soon hard pressed to satisfy the increasing demand for extension materials throughout the province.

The administrative structure of The University of Alberta was substantially altered through changes to the University Act in 1910. Revisions to this Act were based on suggestions prepared by Tory following a two-year study of administrative procedures elsewhere in North America and Europe. In accordance with the terms of the new University Act, a new governing body, called the Board of Governors, was created to handle the financial operations of the university. The role of the Senate was henceforth restricted to conducting the academic affairs of the university.

An important provision of the new University Act was the establishment of a system for administering professional examinations in the province. The Act created a Board of Professional Examinations, comprising representatives from recognized professional bodies and the university. Placed under the control of the university, this board was authorized to conduct examinations for applicants for professional certification in the province. The first of its kind in Canada, the Board was designed to implement and maintain uniformly high standards of accreditation in professions such as medicine, law, dentistry, and pharmacy. Successful from its inception in attaining the respect and compliance of professional bodies throughout the province, the Professional Examinations Board subsequently served as a model for the establishment of similar certification boards elsewhere in Canada.

Although The University of Alberta had demonstrated sound administrative organization and admirable academic progress by 1914, the status of the university within Alberta's higher education scheme had not been secured to President Tory's satisfaction by this time. Since the foundation of The University of Alberta, efforts had been made by loyal Calgarians to persuade the provincial government to locate the university permanently in Calgary. By 1911, Calgary university advocates had proceeded to the point of establishing a higher educational institution in that city and applying to the government for university degree-granting authority at that institution. Despite the initial rejection of this request by the provincial legislature in 1911, the Calgary University nevertheless commenced operations without degree-granting privileges in 1912. Efforts were then renewed to convince the government to reverse its previous decision regarding Calgary's degree status.

By 1914, the Calgary institution had encountered severe financial difficulties, owing to the failure of promised subscriptions from the community to materialize. In response to further requests for degree status and provincial assistance in supporting this university, the liberal government of the day established a commission of three esteemed Canadian university presidents to investigate the validity of maintaining two public universities in Alberta. The Commission, after conducting public hearings into this matter, concluded that the province should support only a single centralized university at that time, and that The University of Calgary could be profitably transformed into a joint provincially and municipally sponsored Institute of Art and Technology. The provincial government adopted these recommendations of the Commission thus defusing the movement towards two separate, independent, and competing universities in Alberta. When the thrust towards an autonomous Calgary University was revived

several decades later, it was under conditions of provincial demographic and economic development which to a more realistic degree warranted such a move.

The outbreak of World War I did not initially alter the activities of The University of Alberta to a great extent. With the exception of a heightened emphasis on military training, the academic year 1914-1915 resembled previous years. By the end of 1915, however, it became shockingly apparent to all Canadians that the war was not likely to end soon or easily. Henceforth, the University of Alberta responded energetically to the call for greater assistance for the war effort. The University participated actively in the formation of a Western Universities Battalion in 1916. An entire company of this battalion was manned by Albertans.

The drastic decrease in numbers of students and staff due to enlistment created difficulties for the university in offering and filling previously well-subscribed courses. By 1917, even the President had departed for Europe to head the Khaki University for soldiers. On the home front as well as overseas, the University endeavored to bolster the war effort. Through the Department of Extension, attempts were made to obtain increased moral and material support for the allied forces from Albertans.

Following the war, the university experienced a trying period of adjustment as efforts were made to accommodate the many returning veterans who wished to start or continue advanced education programs. In addition to an increase in courses offered during regular university sessions, special summer sessions were organized to assist veterans in reintegrating themselves into civilian and academic life. Summer School was also commenced in 1919 for regular students wishing to take university courses, but unable to attend winter session classes.

A significant outcome of World War I was the heightened realization and appreciation of the value of scientific research for both peacetime and wartime economic development. The role of the university in carrying out desired research was also recognized more than ever before. In Alberta, an influential group of businessmen, industrialists and municipal officials joined with Tory and his academic colleagues to pressure the provincial government to establish an industrial research body for Alberta. The government responded in 1919 by approving the foundation of the Alberta Research Council, a joint university-provincial government organization and the first such provincial research body in Canada.

In its efforts to investigate and assess the economic development potential of Alberta's natural resources, the Research Council concentrated primarily in its first decade upon fuels and road materials research. Particular emphasis was placed on the potential use of Athabasca tar sands materials for paving provincial roads, and on the enhancement of coal production and industrial use in Alberta.

Throughout the 1920's The University of Alberta was characterized by a gradual expansion and consolidation of existing academic programs. A major advance occurred in the early 1920's in the field of medical teaching. With the aid of a \$500,000 grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the Medical Faculty was able to extend its program in 1923 to cover the entire course of medical training. Strathcona Hospital, acquired by the university in 1922, was used for medical teaching purposes. The Faculty of Medicine was expanded even further in 1924, by the foundation of a University of Alberta School of Nursing.

The School of Law became a full-fledged faculty in 1926 while, by 1928, the schools of Home Economics, Accounting and Commerce, and Education had been established. The resources of the Department of Extension were stretched to their limit during the 1920's, as efforts were made to keep pace with growing demands for extension lectures and materials. The ability of the Department of Extension to reach a wide audience was enhanced greatly beginning in 1927 with the establishment of a University of Alberta radio broadcasting station, CKUA. All

over Alberta, and even beyond the provincial borders, people were able to tune in to a variety of educational and cultural enrichment programs prepared and broadcast by the Department of Extension.

The retirement of President Tory in 1928 marked the end of an era at the University of Alberta. After two decades at the head of the university, Tory embarked upon a new career as full-time director of the National Research Council in Ottawa. Having accomplished his major aims in establishing the character and direction of the University of Alberta's development, Tory was now prepared to turn the task of university leadership over to another individual. In line with his traditionally strong influence on University of Alberta affairs, Tory played an instrumental part in the government's selection of his successor.

Dr. R.C. Wallace, chosen to replace Tory as President in 1928, to a great extent shared Tory's views regarding the importance of university research programs and the need for a balance of humanities and science programs. A graduate of the Universities of Edinburgh and Goettingen, Wallace brought to the University of Alberta substantial experience, and a good reputation, in the fields of teaching, research and administration. Having taught geology at the University of Manitoba, he had also served three years as Dominion Government Commissioner of the Pas district of Northern Manitoba prior to coming to Alberta.

One of the initial concerns facing Dr. Wallace as University President was the status of junior colleges in the general scheme of higher education in Alberta. This issue surfaced in 1930, when the University Senate was asked to consider the application of Mount Royal College in Calgary for affiliation with the University of Alberta. The college proposed to offer the initial years of the university Arts and Science curriculum as part of its overall program. After due consideration of this matter, the University administration agreed in principle with the concept of affiliation with junior colleges which could offer university level courses of an acceptable academic quality. Mount Royal College was, therefore, accepted as a junior college affiliate of the University of Alberta in 1930.

Plans for the expansion of university programs during the 1930's were sharply curtailed by the onslaught of the Great Depression in 1930. For nearly a decade, university funds were severely restricted by the provincial government. In addition to declaring a moratorium on new staff appointments or building construction, the university fought an uphill battle to retain existing programs and services. An additional strain was imposed upon the budget after 1933 when the financially beleaguered provincial government turned over complete financial responsibility for the Research Council of Alberta to the University of Alberta.

Among the few bright spots in the development of the University of Alberta during the 1930's was the establishment of the Banff School of Fine Arts. With the aid of a grant from the Carnegie Foundation, programs were established at the Banff School in drama and theatre arts.

The year 1936 marked the resignation of Dr. Wallace, who moved on to Queen's University to take over as President of that institution. Wallace's departure was deeply regretted by students and staff at the University of Alberta, who had come to appreciate the president's skill, tactfulness, and dedication in administering the university during a period of abnormal financial stringency.

Taking over from Dr. Wallace as President was Dr. W.A.R. Kerr, Professor of Modern Languages, Dean of Arts and Science since 1914 and Acting President of The University of Alberta during Dr. Tory's wartime absence. Kerr's extensive administrative experience and intimate familiarity with the structure and aims of The University of Alberta smoothed the transition in leadership at this time.

Like Dr. Wallace, Dr. Kerr was preoccupied during his initial years as President with the problems imposed by general financial constraints upon the University. While there was little scope for expansion of academic programs, a number of significant internal administrative changes were undertaken by the University during the late 1930's. In 1937 the Summer School program was altered for the first time since its inception. The year 1938 saw the elevation of the Committee on Graduate Studies to a school, while in 1939 the School of Education achieved the status of a college. Also during this period, a Faculty Relations Committee was established to relay the concerns and views of university staff to the Board of Governors. This liaison body was the forerunner of the Association of Teaching Staff of The University of Alberta, subsequently created in 1950.

Only twenty-five years after the commencement of the "war to end all wars", The University of Alberta was confronted with the outbreak of World War II in 1939. As in the preliminary stages of the previous war, faculty and students initially adopted a "business as usual" attitude in the belief that the conflict would not escalate to a critical degree. Any illusions regarding the seriousness of the war were shattered, however, following the military catastrophe suffered by the allied forces in June 1940. Henceforth, as during World War I, The University of Alberta committed itself intensively to strengthening the allied war effort. Students and staff were encouraged to enlist in the armed forces, while, for the first time on campus R.C.A.F. and Naval training units were established. Practical courses were offered to armed service personnel in such areas as radio mechanics and electricity. In response to the pressing need for medical personnel and teachers during this period, arrangements were made to offer accelerated courses in these fields. And, in the realm of research, the university contributed to advances in agricultural and industrial technology as part of its wartime service.

Within The University of Alberta, the war years were characterized by a change in presidency and a subsequent modification in administrative structure. President Kerr ended his term as University President on an unfortunate personal note in 1941. The reason for his resignation stemmed from his strong disagreement with the decision of the University Senate to reject the nomination of Premier Aberhart for an honorary degree. The circumstances surrounding the last minute refusal to confer a degree on the Premier led to accusations of petty, partisan behavior against the Senate, and thus tarnished the reputation of the university as a whole. Despite the personal request of Premier Aberhart that he stay on as President, Kerr insisted upon resigning. His departure and untimely death less than two years later represented the loss of an efficient and dedicated executive official to The University of Alberta.

Kerr's place as University President was taken in 1941 by Dr. Robert Newton. Formerly head of the Field Crops Department at The University of Alberta in the 1920's Newton had left to work for the National Research Council before returning to the university in 1940 as Dean of Agriculture. Like his predecessors, Newton ably combined the skills of teacher, researcher and administrator.

One of Newton's initial duties as President was to serve on the University Survey Committee, established by the provincial government in 1941 to investigate and make recommendations concerning all aspects of The University of Alberta's operations. Formed partly in response to the Senate's ill-famed action regarding Aberhart's honorary degree, the committee was prompted primarily by the growing realization that the administrative framework which had served the university effectively in earlier decades was becoming increasingly obsolete to meet the current needs of the institution.

Based on the recommendations of the Survey Committee, the Research Council of Alberta was thus reactivated, again under joint university-government control, and the College of

Education was granted faculty status, as requested by Alberta educators. The University Act was revamped, thus altering the status and functions of the Senate, the General Faculties Council and the Board of Governors. According to the new Act, final authority in academic matters was transferred from the Senate to General Faculties Council. The Senate, greatly reduced in membership, retained the task of approving honorary degrees, but its chief function became to conduct liaison between the community and the university. The Board of Governors was given ultimate authority in all university affairs, thus signifying the paramount importance of the Board's financial powers in determining the direction of university development in general.

Wartime innovations in The University of Alberta academic programs included the enlargement of the dental school and its organization as an independent faculty in 1944. This change was prompted by the increasing contemporary demand for dental education, coupled with the fact that The University of Alberta was the only school west of the Great Lakes to offer such training. The year 1944 also saw the expansion of the role of the university in teacher training in Alberta. The university and government officials agreed that, from 1944 on, all teacher education in the province should be conducted by the university, with the provincial Department of Education retaining only the final responsibility for professional certification of teachers.

The conclusion of World War II was followed by a period of national reconstruction in which heavy burdens were placed on Canadian universities to provide educational services for an influx of returning soldiers. The facilities at The University of Alberta were severely strained as numerous war veterans took advantage of available Department of Veteran Affairs grants to enrol in university programs. Wherever possible, enrolment limits in faculties were expanded to accommodate the increased demand for courses. Where the university could not accept all applicants for a program, veterans were given preference over civilians in registration. To obtain the required number of instructors to handle the enlarged student body, the university boosted the number of temporary appointments to its faculty. To assist veterans who required academic upgrading in order to qualify for existing university programs, pre-matriculation tutoring was offered.

An important outcome of the war, from the standpoint of Canadian universities, was the heightened realization by the federal government of the crucial role played by the provincially supported educational institutions in such national ventures. In recognition of the value of the universities' contributions to national objectives, the federal government began to assist the provinces in supporting higher education. Federal grants, first received by The University of Alberta in 1951, were extremely helpful in meeting financial commitments associated with much needed construction projects in subsequent years.

The University of Alberta entered the decade of the 1950's under the leadership of a new president. Dr. Newton's retirement from the institution's chief executive post in 1950 led to the appointment of Andrew Stewart to assume the presidential duties. Educated in Scotland and subsequently in Manitoba in agriculture and economics, Dr. Stewart lectured at The University of Alberta in both these subjects during the 1940's. He also served on a number of commissions and study groups dealing with such questions as land use and rural development before accepting the post of University President.

Construction of physical facilities became a major priority of the university administration during the 1950's. Primary emphasis was placed on the erection of new Engineering, Agriculture, Library, and Administration buildings. The Banff School of Fine Arts received a welcome addition in funds in the early 1950's from the estate of former Calgary Herald publisher, J. H. Woods. This money was used to complete three chalets to house courses at the school.

Noteworthy changes in the academic programs of The University of Alberta during the 1950's included improvements in the Faculty of Medicine to keep abreast of other progressive schools in North America. A four-year bachelor of nursing program was introduced while, in the aftermath of the serious poliomyelitis epidemic of 1952-53, a School of Physiotherapy was established. This school was intended to alleviate the critical shortage of physiotherapists which had become so readily apparent during the period of epidemics. In 1951, the School of Graduate Studies accepted its first Doctor of Philosophy candidate and, in 1957, this School obtained faculty status.

The 1950's witnessed a growing trend towards diversification and decentralization of higher educational opportunities throughout Alberta. Substantial progress was made towards the establishment of a second provincial university in Calgary, and a number of junior colleges incorporating university transfer courses were created throughout the province.

The movement towards an independent university in Calgary resurfaced boldly after World War II, following three decades of relative dormancy. A committee representing the views of twenty-five local clubs and societies was formed in 1945 to lobby the provincial government for a separate Calgary university. The pro-Calgary university crusade was greatly strengthened by the transformation of the Calgary Normal School in 1945 into a branch of The University of Alberta. The need to offer a number of general arts and science courses in conjunction with the educational courses at the Calgary institution created additional opportunities for non-education students to complete an initial year of studies in Calgary before transferring to the main university campus. During the late 1940's, a Committee for the Establishment of a Branch of The University of Alberta in Calgary actively pursued the expansion of the university curriculum offered in Calgary. In 1947, a full-time director, Dr. A. L. Doucette, was appointed to head the Calgary branch of The University of Alberta. Throughout his term in office, Dr. Doucette remained sympathetic to efforts to increase the independence of the Calgary school.

By 1951, the Calgary branch, newly renamed The University of Alberta in Calgary, acquired official permission to offer first year Faculty of Arts and Science courses. Six years later, in 1957, this authorization was extended to include instruction in second year courses. A major step towards independence for Calgary's university occurred in 1958 with the approval of plans to erect two permanent buildings on the Calgary campus. The first building to be completed, the Arts and Education complex, was officially opened in October, 1960. Permission was also granted in 1958 for Calgary to offer courses in first-year Commerce, Nursing and Physical Education programs.

Crucial changes were undertaken in the administrative structure of the university in Calgary at the end of the 1950's. The decision was made in 1958 to replace the position of Director at the Calgary institution with that of Principal, a position which embodied expanded administrative powers. Granted membership in The University of Alberta Senate and General Faculties Council, the Principal was accorded equal status and authority with The University of Alberta Vice-President. His duties were extensive, encompassing overall responsibility for the operations of the Calgary university. Appointed the first Principal of the university was Dr. Malcolm G. Taylor.

In addition to the principal, the university in Calgary was granted the services of a full-time Registrar, Business Officer, Director of Student Advisory Services, Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds and Department of Extension Officer in 1958. Finally, a Council for the Faculty of Arts and Science was created at this time.

At the same time that the Calgary Branch of The University of Alberta was expanding its programs and augmenting its administrative independence, developments were taking place

which would culminate first in the establishment of a new junior college and subsequently in the formation of Alberta's third provincial university in Lethbridge. The movement towards the creation of a junior college in Lethbridge gained impetus during the late 1940's under the leadership of local school trustees Kate Andrews and Dr. G. C. Paterson. Through the efforts of these individuals, and with the aid of their colleagues among school trustees, a committee was established by the Lethbridge School District #51 in the early 1950's to investigate and report on the feasibility of establishing a community college in Lethbridge. On the basis of reports suggesting the viability of the proposed junior college, representatives of the Lethbridge School Boards, both separate and public, approached The University of Alberta and provincial government officials to negotiate the foundation of a Lethbridge Junior College. Formal governmental approval was obtained for the commencement of junior college operations in Lethbridge in 1957.

The agreement reached concerning the affiliation of the Lethbridge Junior College with The University of Alberta necessitated changes in the provincial junior college legislation. The required alterations were duly incorporated into an amended Public Junior Colleges Act, passed by the provincial government in 1958.

At The University of Alberta the end of the 1950's brought the resignation of President Andrew Stewart. Dr. Stewart accepted the chairmanship of the newly created Board of Broadcast Governors in Ottawa at this time. His place was taken by Dr. Walter Johns, then Vice-President of the university. A competent administrator as well as an accomplished classics scholar and professor, Dr. Johns was to preside over a decade of unprecedented growth in the size and complexity of university operations. Already one of Canada's fastest growing universities in 1960, The University of Alberta increased its student population 250 per cent, its graduate student population 400 per cent, and its physical size threefold from 1959 to 1969.

The duties of President were also in the process of evolution during this period. From the role of chief executive officer, characteristic of earlier decades, the position of President had come to embrace the managerial tasks of coordinating and balancing the activities of large and intricate academic and administrative units within the university.

An essential aim of The University of Alberta administration during the early 1960's was to forecast future higher educational trends and needs in the province in order to determine priorities in planning and development for the university. To accomplish these objectives, a Committee for Long Range Academic Planning was established in 1960 while, in the following year, a provincial Survey Committee on Higher Education was created to project post-secondary educational needs in the province to 1980. Meetings, held over the course of four years by this latter committee, resulted in a greater sense of mutual understanding among provincial government and university officials as to the major problems confronting the university, and their potential solutions.

Closely connected with recommendations for future development of The University of Alberta were the evolving objectives and progress of the Calgary branch of the university and other higher educational institutions throughout the province. In Calgary, a growing autonomy movement emerged during the early 1960's. By 1963, faculty and student resolutions had been submitted to The University of Alberta Board of Governors requesting total autonomy for the university in Calgary. The independence drive gained even further momentum during 1964.

In response to mounting pressure from Calgary administrators and public alike, provincial government authority was granted for the appointment of a President to the Calgary university in 1964. An independent General Faculties Council was also created at this time. Appointed President was Dr. H.S. Armstrong, formerly Dean of Science, then Vice-President at The University of Alberta in 1963.

Still chafing under the restrictions imposed by its links with The University of Alberta, the Calgary branch of the university continued to press vigorously for total financial and academic autonomy. This goal was finally achieved in 1966 when, under the terms of a newly revised provincial Universities Act, complete independence was granted to this institution, now renamed the University of Calgary. Dr. Armstrong was installed in 1966 as the first President of the independent University of Calgary, which now embodied the Banff School of Fine Arts as well.

The new university grew rapidly during the late 1960's. A School of Social Welfare, the first in Alberta, was opened in 1967, while the School of Physical Education, and the Faculties of Fine Arts and Commerce were inaugurated during the subsequent two years. A decision was also made in the late 1960's to erect a Medical School, destined to graduate its first students in 1975.

Lethbridge, as well as Calgary, acquired an independent university in the latter half of the 1960's. As in the case of Calgary, a vigorous university independence movement surfaced in Lethbridge during the early 1960's. In late 1964, the City of Lethbridge, the Lethbridge Labor Council and Chamber of Commerce joined in submitting a common brief to the provincial Survey Committee on Higher Education requesting the formation of a university in their city. In the following year, 1965, an independent consultant's report was completed, recommending the establishment of an autonomous university in Lethbridge by 1970. The provincial government opted, however, to act even sooner than suggested in this report to form a Lethbridge University. Thus, in 1967, the University of Lethbridge, an undergraduate university offering degrees in Arts and Science, and Education was officially opened. The rationale for the situation of the province's third university at Lethbridge, aside from the lobbying efforts of Lethbridge residents, lay in the substantial recent growth in the region's population and industrial base, and in the proximity of two existing experimental research centres to that city.

The 1966 Universities Act, under which the universities of Calgary and Lethbridge were incorporated, contained a number of significant modifications over previous university legislation in Alberta. In addition to its provisions for the establishment of new provincial universities whenever considered necessary, the Act established a Universities Commission to undertake administrative and policy-making decisions relating to provincial universities. Comprising a full-time Chairman and eight other representatives from the general public, the Universities Commission was empowered to advise the provincial government on financial matters concerning the universities and to determine how the total annual universities grant should be distributed among the various provincial institutions. By controlling the expansion and creation of individual universities, the Universities Commission was intended to prevent duplication of educational resources and programs among different provincial institutions.

At the same time that the Universities Commission was created, the provincial government passed a Colleges Act, thus establishing a Colleges Commission along the lines of the equivalent Universities Commission. The need for a co-ordinating body among provincial colleges was evident by this time as a result of rapid growth in provincial interest and enrolment in these non-university, post-secondary institutions. Following the lead of the Lethbridge Junior College, similar institutions had been established, or newly affiliated with the universities of Alberta or Calgary, in Camrose (Camrose Lutheran College, 1958), Red Deer (1964), Medicine Hat (1965), Grande Prairie (1966) and Calgary (Mount Royal College, a public institution after 1966).

The late 1960's were characterized by even further extension of the provincial college system as the government emphasized the need for enhanced post-secondary educational

opportunities, both for students wishing to complete initial university courses at an institution close to home and for those individuals who were not attracted to, or qualified for, university education. Facilities at both the Red Deer and Lethbridge colleges were expanded while, in 1970, the new Grant MacEwan Community College was formally instituted in Edmonton.

At The University of Alberta, the 1960's constituted a period of extensive building construction. Additions were completed to the Physical Education, Physical Science, Engineering and Medical buildings. Newly erected facilities during these years included the Home Economics, Cameron Library, Henry Marshall Tory, Engineering Phase I, Students' Union and Clinical Sciences Buildings.

The 1960's is remembered throughout North America as a period of intellectual turmoil and student unrest. Tension mounted on a number of campuses between students and administrative authorities as students demanded an increasing voice in the academic and business affairs of the universities. Frequent political agitation and, on a number of occasions, violence erupted as student protesters clashed with administrators and law enforcement officers. Although Alberta's universities experienced a growth in demands for student power and representation in university government, the level of agitation was mild in comparison to other contemporary North American universities where protest activities escalated, even to the point of occasional violence on campus. The maintenance of relative peace in faculty-student-administrator relationships at the universities in Alberta was largely attributable to the lack of extensive growth of radicalism and student militancy in the province and to the willingness of university officials to grant an increased measure of student involvement in the university decision-making process.

After ten years at the helm of The University of Alberta, Dr. Johns retired from the position of University President. Returning to his job as a classics professor, Dr. Johns passed over the reins of authority to newly appointed President Max Wyman. A highly respected mathematician, Wyman had served as head of the University of Alberta Mathematics Department, Dean of Science, and finally Vice-President (Academic) prior to his selection as University President.

By the end of the 1960's, the provincial government had become increasingly concerned with the implications of growing enrolments in all facets of higher education in Alberta. To assist in formulating future educational policy, the Ministry of Education launched an investigation into the whole educational system in the province. Included in the commission's mandate were the tasks of projecting economic and social trends in the province for the following two decades and assessing their potential impact upon provincial higher educational needs.

Even before the Worth Commission (named after its chairman, Dr. Walter Worth) had produced its final report, the provincial government had initiated measures to establish a fourth provincial university. The Social Credit administration had decided that, as a matter of policy, an upper limit of 25,000 students was to be set at The University of Alberta. Based on statistics which predicted the attainment of this figure by 1973, the government chose to create a new university as soon as possible to relieve pressures on existing University of Alberta facilities and staff. An Order-in-Council was thus passed in June 1970 to create the Athabasca University. This new university was to be restricted initially to the Faculties of Arts and Science, and Education, for which enrollment demand was the greatest. The university was intended to offer graduate programs only in the humanities and social science fields, since facilities for graduate work in other areas were considered prohibitively expensive at that time.

An interim governing authority was chosen to head Athabasca University in 1970. In the following year, this body completed a report entitled *Athabasca University-Academic*

Concept, in which it outlined proposed course offerings for the new university. The decision had been made, meanwhile, by the government to situate the university in St. Albert, a bedroom community just outside of Edmonton. In May, 1971, Dr. T.C. Byrne, then Deputy Minister of the provincial Department of Education, was selected President of Athabasca University.

Plans for the progress of Athabasca University were altered drastically, however, following the election of the Progressive Conservative government in 1971. Having observed the failure of Athabasca University to attract 1,000 students in its first year of operation, the government halted plans for permanent facilities for this university in St. Albert. After seriously reassessing the validity of establishing a fourth university as yet in Alberta, the government concluded by permitting Athabasca University's governing authority to complete a pilot project involving the establishment of an innovative home study program. Contingent upon the ability of the university to attract a substantial body of students and to satisfy the academic demands of these students, the future status of Athabasca University was to be decided.

Modelled on the structure of the British Open University, Athabasca University initially experienced serious difficulties implementing and expanding its curriculum to keep pace with the progress of its students. Particular problems were encountered in financing the preparation or purchase of necessary course manuals, textbooks, and library materials. After experimenting with completely individualized study programs, the new university discovered greater merits in the employment of tutors to maintain contact with, and assist, students in completing courses.

Despite the slow rate of growth in enrollment at Athabasca University, this institution was accorded full status as a degree-granting institution by the provincial government in 1975. Included in the mandate of the university at that time was the obligation to provide university transfer courses for students in the Lloydminster and Fort McMurray regions. By 1977, the administrative structure of Athabasca University had been altered again to abolish the interim governing authority. In its place a single body, the Governing Council, was created to direct the operations of the university. This council combined the financial functions generally assigned to a University Board of Governors, the academic duties usually vested in a General Faculties Council, and the community liaison functions ordinarily associated with a University Senate.

By the end of the 1970's Athabasca University had begun to experience a dramatic upsurge in interest and enrollment. In 1979, 3500 students registered at the university, an increase of more than 3300 over the figure for 1974. The university followed as flexible procedures as possible in its admissions policy. Any student over eighteen years of age was allowed to register and registration was permitted at the beginning of any month. Particular efforts were made to accommodate unique educational demands as they arose throughout the province. Progress was made, for instance, in the use of satellite communications for teaching purposes in isolated communities.

The permanent location of Athabasca University became a controversial issue during 1979, following the provincial government's decision to locate the university permanently in the town of Athabasca. While residents of Athabasca and its surrounding region tended to welcome this decision, members of Athabasca University's staff and administration proved less enthusiastic. Both Dr. Sam Smith, President of the university since Dr. Byrne's retirement in 1976, and Governing Council member Edward Checkland resigned their positions in protest against the government's action in moving the university. The government remained adamant in its stand, however. At the time of writing, plans are underway to complete the relocation of Athabasca University and to erect necessary facilities at its permanent site.

At the same time that Athabasca University was suffering its birth pangs, the three established universities in Alberta were struggling to contend with the growing financial pressures and declining rates of enrollment which characterized higher education in the 1970's. At each of the universities of Alberta, Calgary, and Lethbridge, registration varied little in the 1970's despite overall substantial growth in the provincial population during this time. The numbers

of students throughout the province peaked between 1975 and 1977 while, particularly in the cases of Alberta and Lethbridge, total student populations in 1979 numbered only slightly greater than those of 1970.

Despite this reversal of the 1960's trend towards explosive growth in student population, a number of important capital building projects, unable to be completed during the previous decade were still considered necessary in the 1970's. Growing difficulties were encountered, however, due to widespread monetary inflation in Canada, in raising the required funds to undertake building construction. More than ever before, university administrators were forced to exercise caution and restraint in assessing spending priorities on their respective campuses.

At The University of Alberta, the early 1970's saw the completion of the Biological Sciences, Central Academic, Basic Medical Sciences, Engineering Phase II, Law, Humanities and Fine Arts Buildings. As well, additions were completed to the Chemistry, Education and Rutherford Library Buildings. A moratorium was then imposed on further construction until 1978, when approval was finally received for the erection of an Agriculture and Forestry Faculty Building.

The programs available to University of Alberta students were enlarged in 1971, upon the affiliation of the French language Collège Saint- Jean with the university. Eight years later, in 1978, this institution was incorporated more fully into the university as The University of Alberta Faculté St. Jean. Bilingual programs were offered in Arts, Science, and Education at this new faculty.

Following five years of diligent and effective leadership at The University of Alberta, Dr. Wyman resigned as President in 1974. His successor, Dr. Harry E. Gunning, was an internationally renowned research chemist who, having joined The University of Alberta as Chairman of the Chemistry Department in 1957, was appointed Killam Memorial Professor prior to his selection as University President. Like Dr. Wyman before him, President Gunning was faced with the extremely difficult and sensitive task of co-ordinating the activities of a complex institution during a period of crippling economic inflation, and resultant government pressure to cut back on educational expenses. Like his predecessors, Dr. Gunning found his duties as President challenging, stimulating and rewarding. However, his long range plans called for a return to his own field of scholarship within several years of his presidential appointment. When after five years in office, Dr. Gunning retired to pursue research projects actively again, his place was taken by Dr. Myer Horowitz. Horowitz, who had been initially appointed an education professor at The University of Alberta in 1969, had subsequently served as Chairman of the Department of Elementary Education, Dean of Education after 1972 and university Vice-President (Academic) after 1975. The new President was installed in September, 1979.

Conclusion

In reflecting upon the historical development of Alberta's universities over nearly three quarters of a century, what emerges very clearly is the phenomenal extent of growth experienced by The University of Alberta and its sister institutions during this period. From a single institution with a teaching staff of four and a student body of forty-five in 1908, Alberta has graduated to a system of four universities in which a total of more than 28,000 students registered in 1979. Whereas The University of Alberta initially operated on a budget of \$25,000, the same institution in 1980 encounters serious difficulties in meeting its expenses on a budget of more than \$114,000,000.

In content and scope, academic programs at provincial universities have varied significantly over the past seventy-five years. Changes in educational priorities and levels of research and technology have been responsible for substantial course innovations and modifications over

the years. Intellectual disciplines and fields of study not yet treated as separate entities in 1908, such as anthropology and sociology, have since become bona fide departments actively engaged in instruction and research. Meanwhile, laboratory and classroom facilities and apparatus undreamed of in the early twentieth century have become standard equipment in many modern university programs.

As striking, however, as the transformations which have occurred in university sizes, structures and curricula since 1908, are the aspects of academic life which have remained similar throughout the various stages of university development. Many of the concerns, aspirations, and problems common to The University of Alberta during its initial phases of operations are shared even today by provincial higher educational institutions. As during the period of Henry Marshall Tory's presidency, present-day provincial university leaders aim to preserve, expand, and apply knowledge for the benefit of the communities which sponsor their operations. In recent years, as much as in previous decades, university administrators have been concerned with achieving an efficient and equitable balance between the activities of teaching and research. The question has constantly arisen as well as to how much emphasis to place on pure, theoretical research as opposed to practical research of more immediate and directly visible benefit to society.

The issue of accountability to the public has been an overriding concern of provincial universities since their origins. At the same time that they have sought a measure of independence and detachment from the community, sufficient to allow creative inspiration and expression to flourish, Alberta universities have also recognized the need to fulfill public demands for specific types of information and activities. Just as President Tory struggled during his initial years as University President to convince Albertans of the validity of maintaining a provincial university, current university administrators are confronted with the ongoing task of persuading Albertans to approve increasing expenditures to support and improve existing university operations.

The success of present-day university leaders in satisfying public expectations in their university achievements, and in stimulating public enthusiasm for further academic endeavors will greatly influence the future course of educational development in Alberta. The apparent recognition of this point by current university administrators and educators constitutes an important first step towards striking a desired balance between the fulfillment of existing public commitments and the instigation of innovative intellectual endeavors in forthcoming years.

PART EIGHT
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